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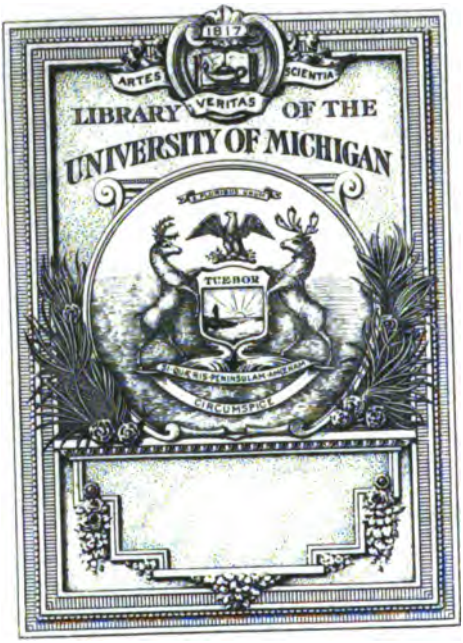
2000 QUESTIONS and ANSWERS ABOUT THE WAR



THE GIFT OF
Prof. W. H. Hobbs

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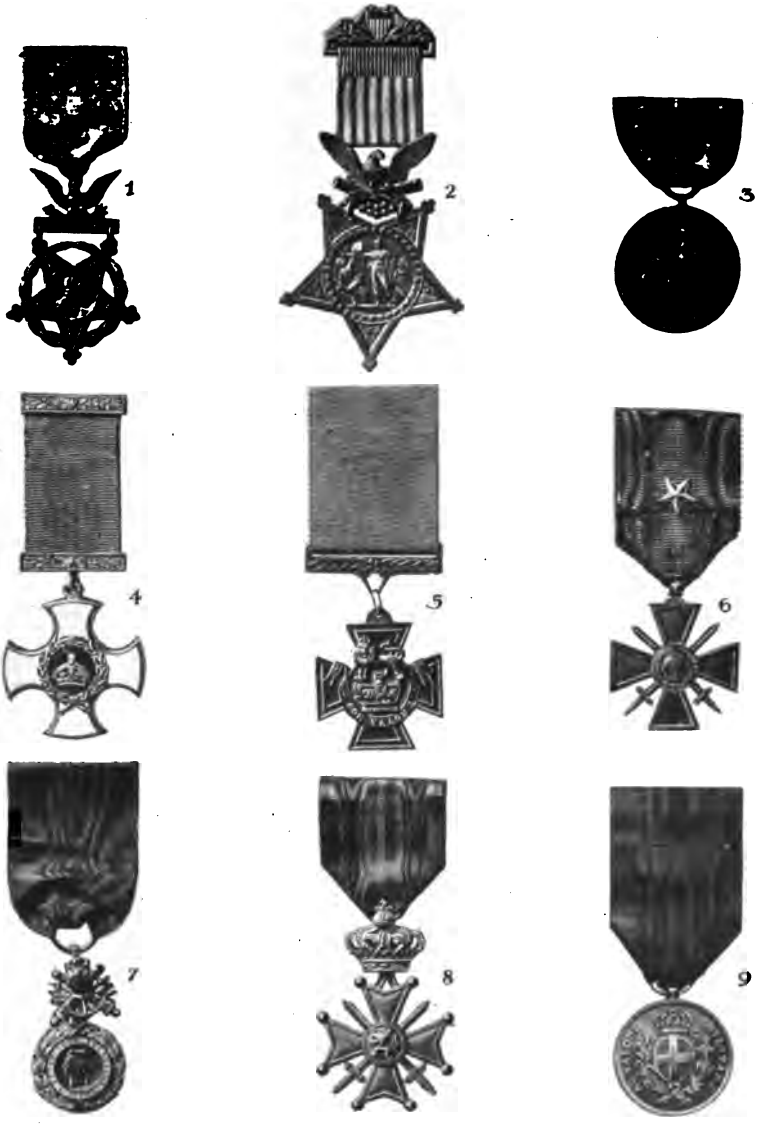
MEDALS OF THE ALLIES



1. UNITED STATES—
   Medal of Honor, Army
2. UNITED STATES—
   Medal of Honor, Navy
3. UNITED STATES—
   Certificate of Merit Medal
4. GREAT BRITAIN—
   Distinguished Service Order
5. GREAT BRITAIN—
   Victoria Cross
6. FRANCE—
   Croix de Guerre (Cross of War)
7. FRANCE—
   Medaille Militaire (Military Medal)
8. BELGIUM—
   Order of Leopold
9. ITALY—Medal of Military Valor

UNIV. OF MICH.

Two Thousand

Questions and Answers *About the* War

A Catechism of the Methods of Fighting, Travelling and Living; of the Armies, Navies and Air Fleets; of the Personalities, Politics and Geography of the Warring Countries. With seventeen new War Maps and a Pronouncing Dictionary of Names.

Compiled on two continents under the direction of the editorial staff of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO.
NEW YORK
1·9·1·8

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Gift
Prof. W. K. Hotta
2-16-33

PREFATORY NOTE

Second and Revised Edition

THE questions and answers in the pages of this volume have come from suggestions offered by many different people. The nucleus of paragraphs around which the first edition was built came from Henry Stead's "War Fact Book," which was published in book form in the spring of 1918 in Australia—the accumulation of nearly one hundred chapters of the "Catechism of the War" which has been a semi-monthly feature of *Stead's Review* during the war.

The editor chiefly responsible for the work of compiling and classification of both the first and the present edition of "2000 Questions and Answers" is Mr. Julius W. Muller of New York. This second edition has been revised under the editorial supervision of a university professor of history obtained through the suggestion, made at our request, of the authorities at Washington.

Mr. Muller has been a well-known newspaper man in the metropolis for more than 27 years, and has filled editorial positions on two New York dailies over a considerable period of years.

As an author he is chiefly known for his patriotic work "The Invasion of America," published first in syndicate form by a number of the most prominent newspapers in America and later issued in book form by E. P. Dutton & Co. This work of fiction, picturing the invasion of America via New England as an accomplished fact, was one of the first and most vigorous stimulants to the military preparedness of the American nation. The newspaper publication was aggressively used by the most active of the American societies organized to awaken the nation to the need for preparedness in war.

In the same year, 1915, Mr. Muller published "The A. B. C. of National Defense," a popular treatise showing what the nation should do to put itself in a position to defend its 30,000 miles of coast against a first-class power.

This revised edition of "2000 Questions and Answers About the War" has, at the request of the publishers, been carefully read by the Intelligence Office of our Department of War, they have given it their full approval. We are also indebted to experts familiar with the official point of view of our Allies, especially England and France, for their careful reading of the proofs to ensure the utmost accuracy in the presentation of facts.

THE PUBLISHERS.

CONTENTS

	Page
America's Principles for World Settlement	1
American Fighters in France	42
Troop Transport Overseas	54
Man Under Water (The Submarine)	57
Man in the Air	67
Our Navy	78
Weapons of War	87
Our Army	103
Identification of Fighting Men	114
The Prisoner of War	116
Casualties of War	121
Battles of the Great War	128
Sea Fights of the Great War	131
Strategy of the War—Military and Political	136
Foreign Navies	141
Soldiers of the Allies	147
Ravaged Belgium	153
Lithuanians and Poles	159
Clamoring Nationalities	163
Restless Russia	175
Japan and Manchuria	184
Cost of War (America)	190
Cost of War (Allies)	197
Cost of War (Central Powers)	202
Germany (Industrial Structure)	206
Germany (Political Structure)	214
Germany (Food)	227
The Selective Draft	231
Our First Year of War (April 6, 1917-April 6, 1918)	241
Populations and Religions	246
Ship Destruction	252
American Ship Seizures	256
The World's Ships of Peace	261
European Trade Arteries	266
Prince Lichnowsky's Revelations	269
Europe's Food	272
America's Food	279
The World's Raw Materials	283
American Conduct of War	289
Some Past Campaigns	295

CONTENTS—*continued*

	Page
The Red Cross and Others	297
Who's Who in Royalty	300
War's Who's Who in Fighters	305
War's Who's Who in Civilians	310
The Workers	319
Spies, Traitors and Alien Enemies	322
Belgium's Long Torment	325
Record of Events in the Great War	341
Armistice, Text of	352
The Pronunciation of War Names	357
Index	369

Illustrations

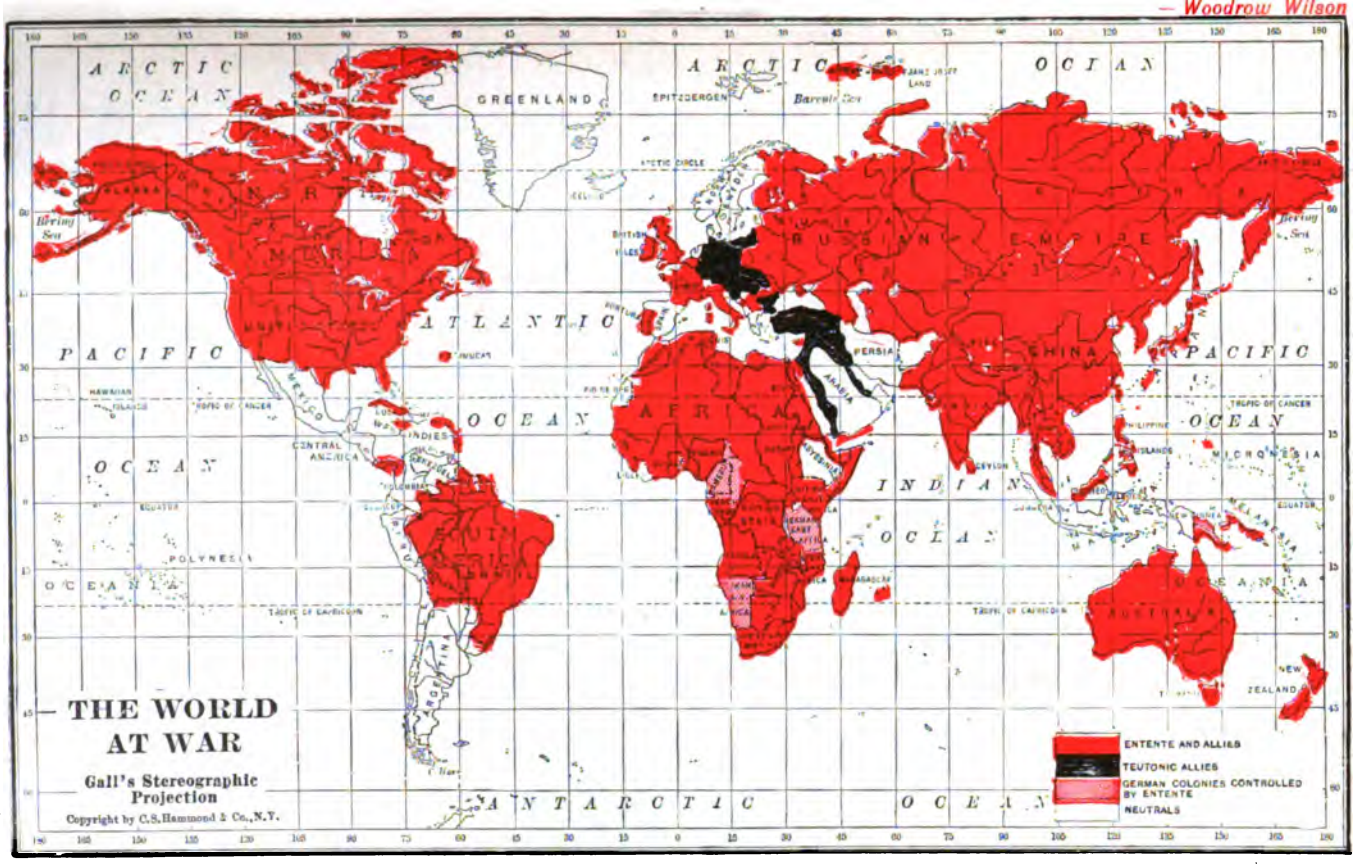
Distinguished Service Cross of the United States and Medals of the Allies	Frontispiece
Army and Navy Insignia	Page 109
Flag Signalling	Page 113
Flags of the Allies (in color)	Plate XVIII

Maps (in color)

The World at War	Plate I
The German Barred Zones	Plate II
The German Alliance	Plate III
The Western Battle Front	Plate IV
Lowlands of Northern France and Belgium (With Battle Lines)	Plate V
Highlands of Northern France (With Battle Lines)	Plate VI
Eastern France and Alsace-Lorraine (With Battle Lines)	Plate VII
Austro-Italian Frontier (With Battle Lines)	Plate VIII
Balkan States (With Battle Line)	Plate IX
Asia Minor (With Battle Line)	Plate X
Western Russia, Poland and Russo-German Frontier	Plate XI
Russia in Europe and Caucasia (Showing Extent of German Invasion)	Plate XII
The Pan-German Plan	Plate XIII
Physical Map of Europe	Plate XIV
Racial Map of Europe	Plate XV
Nationalities in Southern Europe	Plate XVI
U. S. Army Cantonments	Plate XVII

black stretched all the way from Hamburg to Bagdad. If she can keep that, her power can disturb the world always, provided present influences, in the country and the government, can still control."

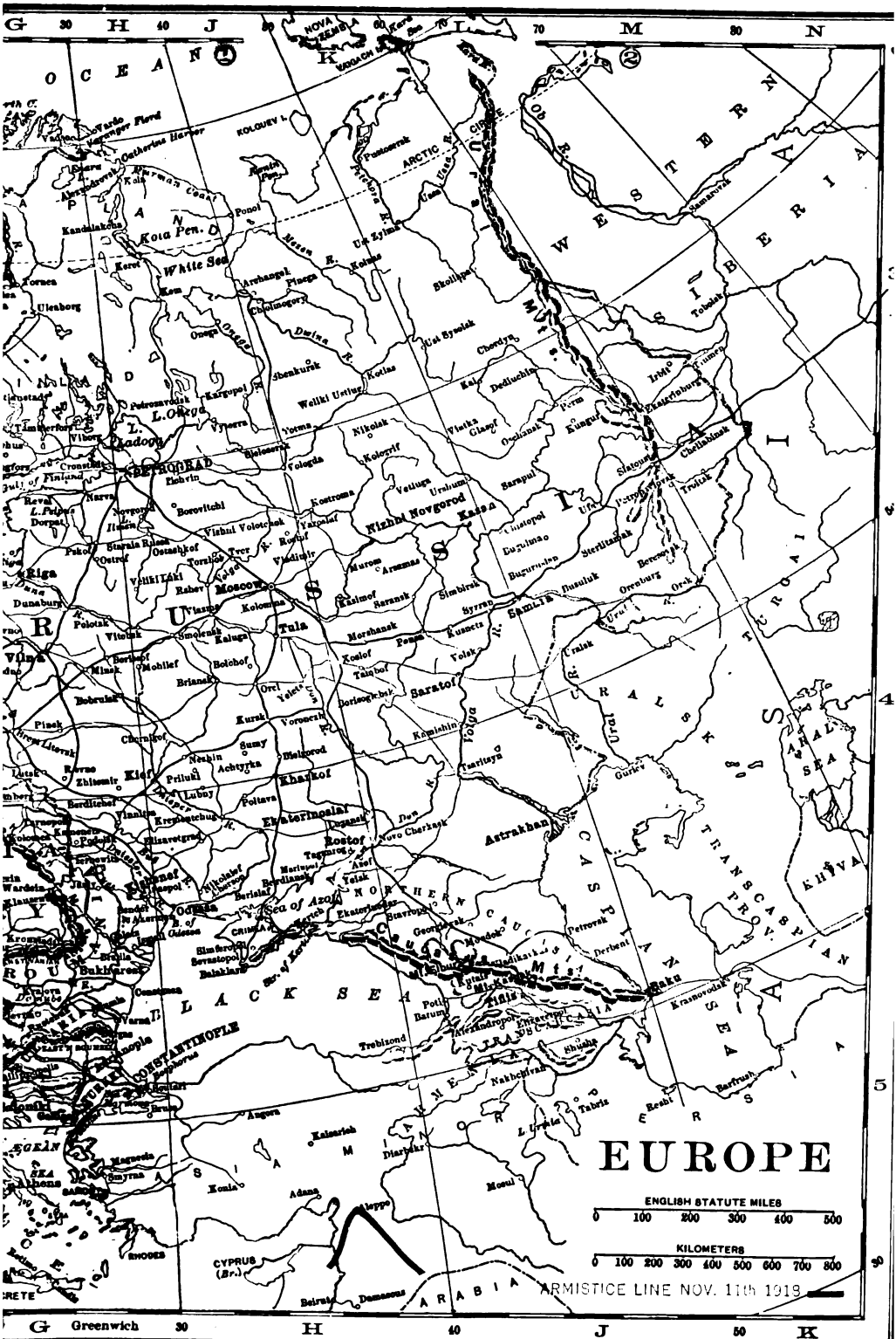
— Woodrow Wilson



The proportion of the earth's surface left nominally at peace and the relation of size between the two sides are strikingly shown in this map.

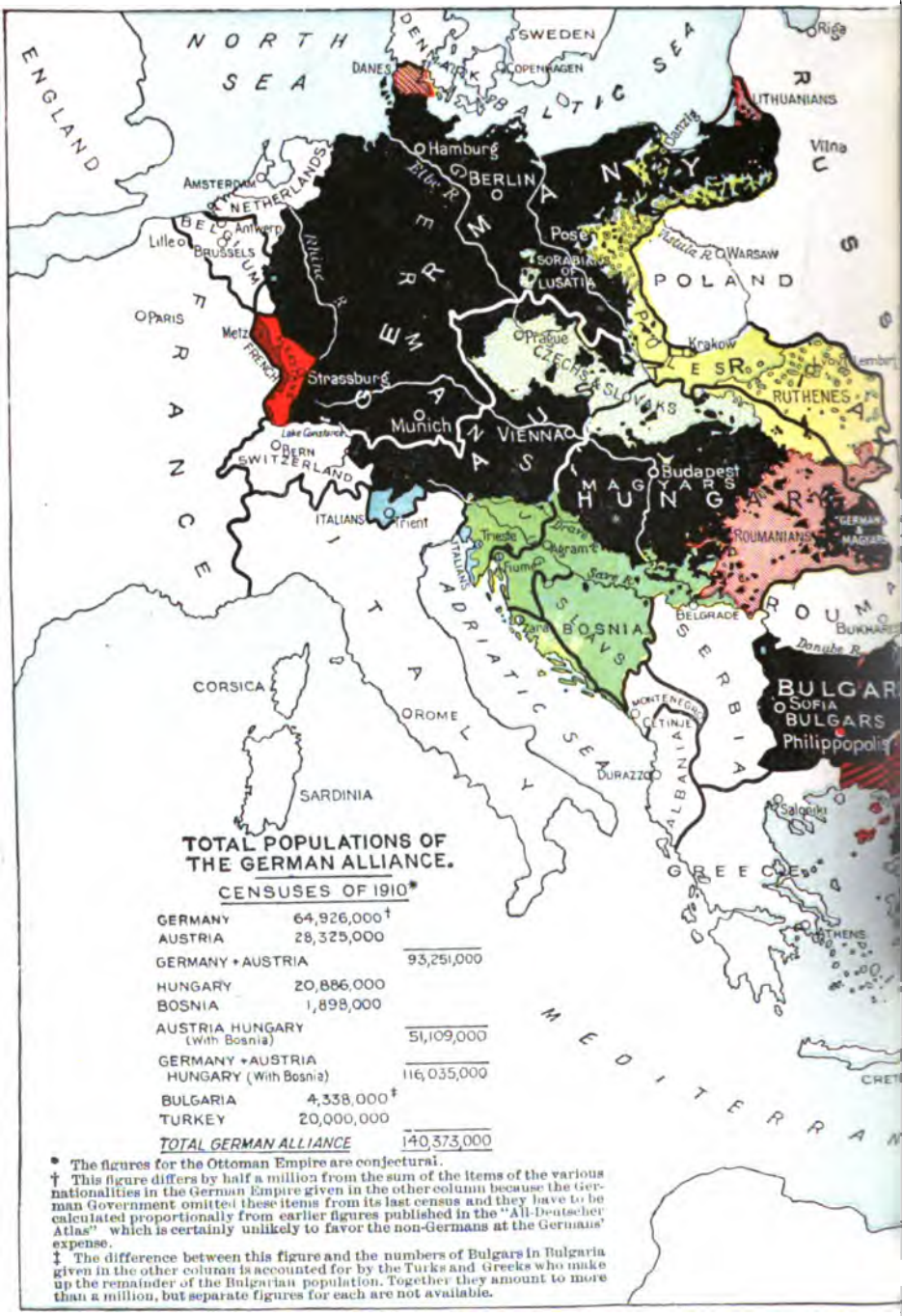
The "Barred Zones" which Germa

The regions proclaimed clos



empted to Erect around her Enemies.

sea traffic are shown in blue



TOTAL POPULATIONS OF THE GERMAN ALLIANCE.

CENSUSES OF 1910*

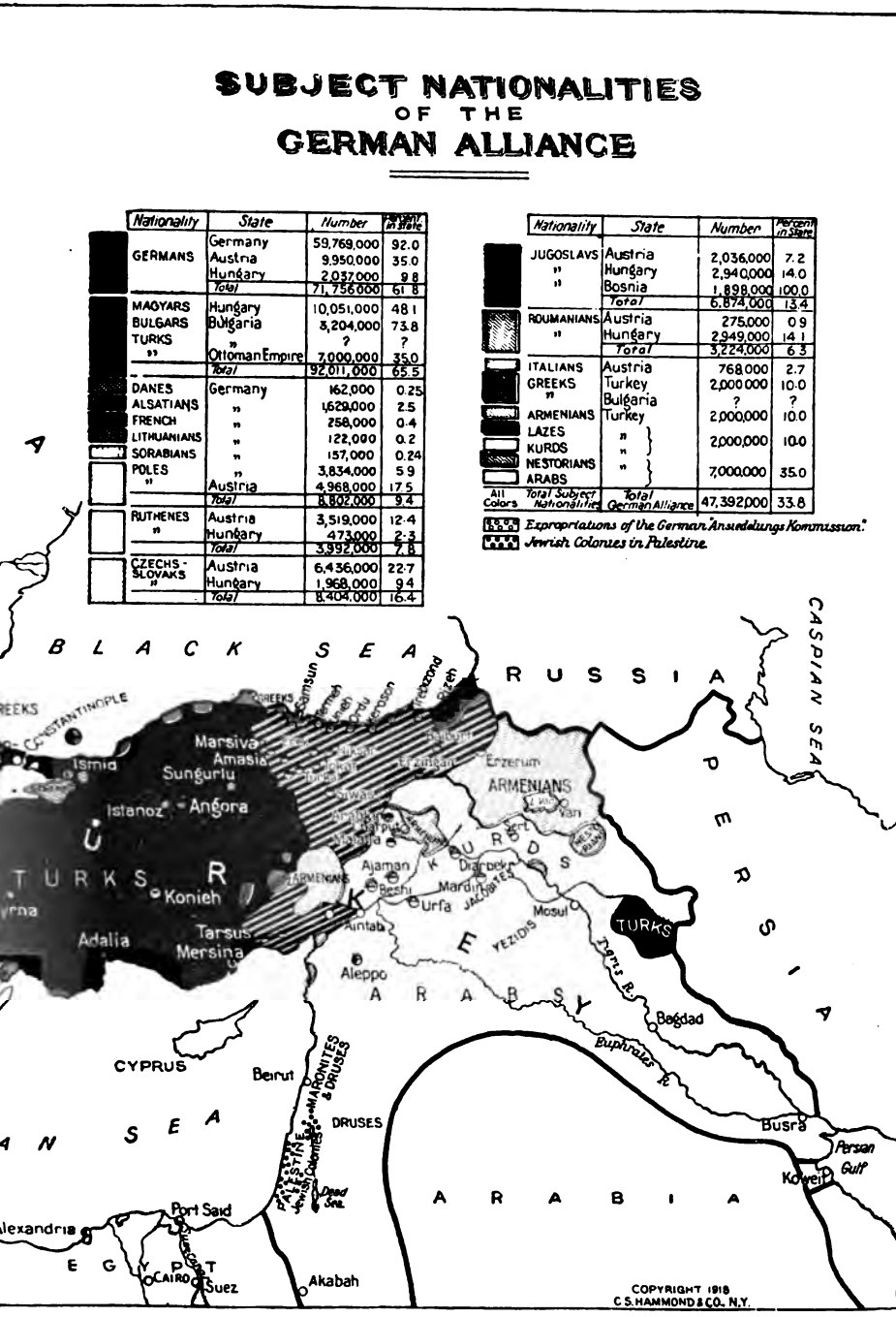
GERMANY	64,926,000†	
AUSTRIA	28,325,000	
GERMANY + AUSTRIA		93,251,000
HUNGARY	20,886,000	
BOSNIA	1,898,000	
AUSTRIA HUNGARY (With Bosnia)		51,109,000
GERMANY + AUSTRIA HUNGARY (With Bosnia)		116,035,000
BULGARIA	4,338,000‡	
TURKEY	20,000,000	
TOTAL GERMAN ALLIANCE		140,373,000

* The figures for the Ottoman Empire are conjectural.

† This figure differs by half a million from the sum of the items of the various nationalities in the German Empire given in the other column because the German Government omitted these items from its last census and they have to be calculated proportionally from earlier figures published in the "All-Deutscher Atlas" which is certainly unlikely to favor the non-Germans at the Germans' expense.

‡ The difference between this figure and the numbers of Bulgars in Bulgaria given in the other column is accounted for by the Turks and Greeks who make up the remainder of the Bulgarian population. Together they amount to more than a million, but separate figures for each are not available.

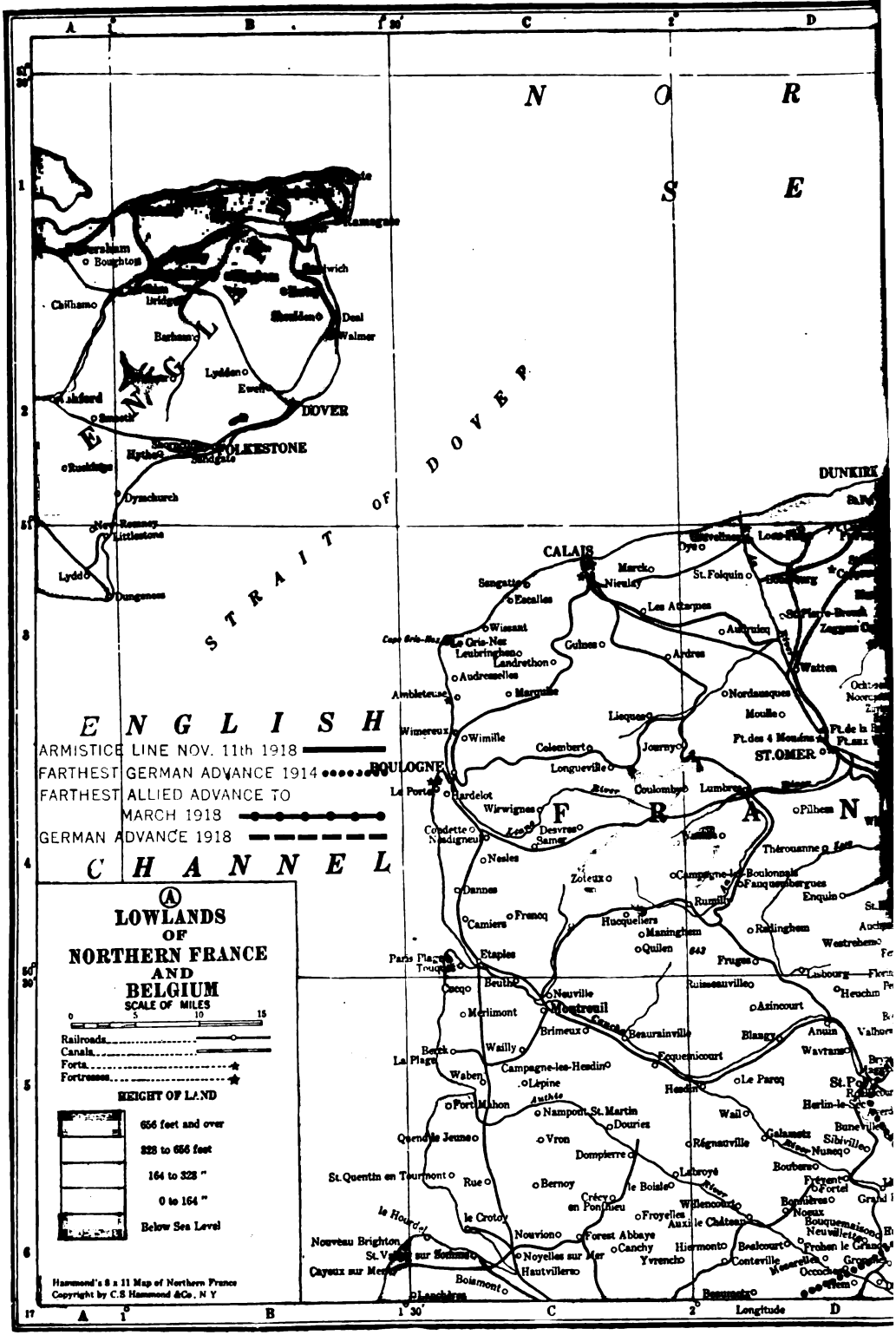
The German Alliance: Note the many dive



tionalities dominated by the Central Powers.

The Topography of the Western Battle Front

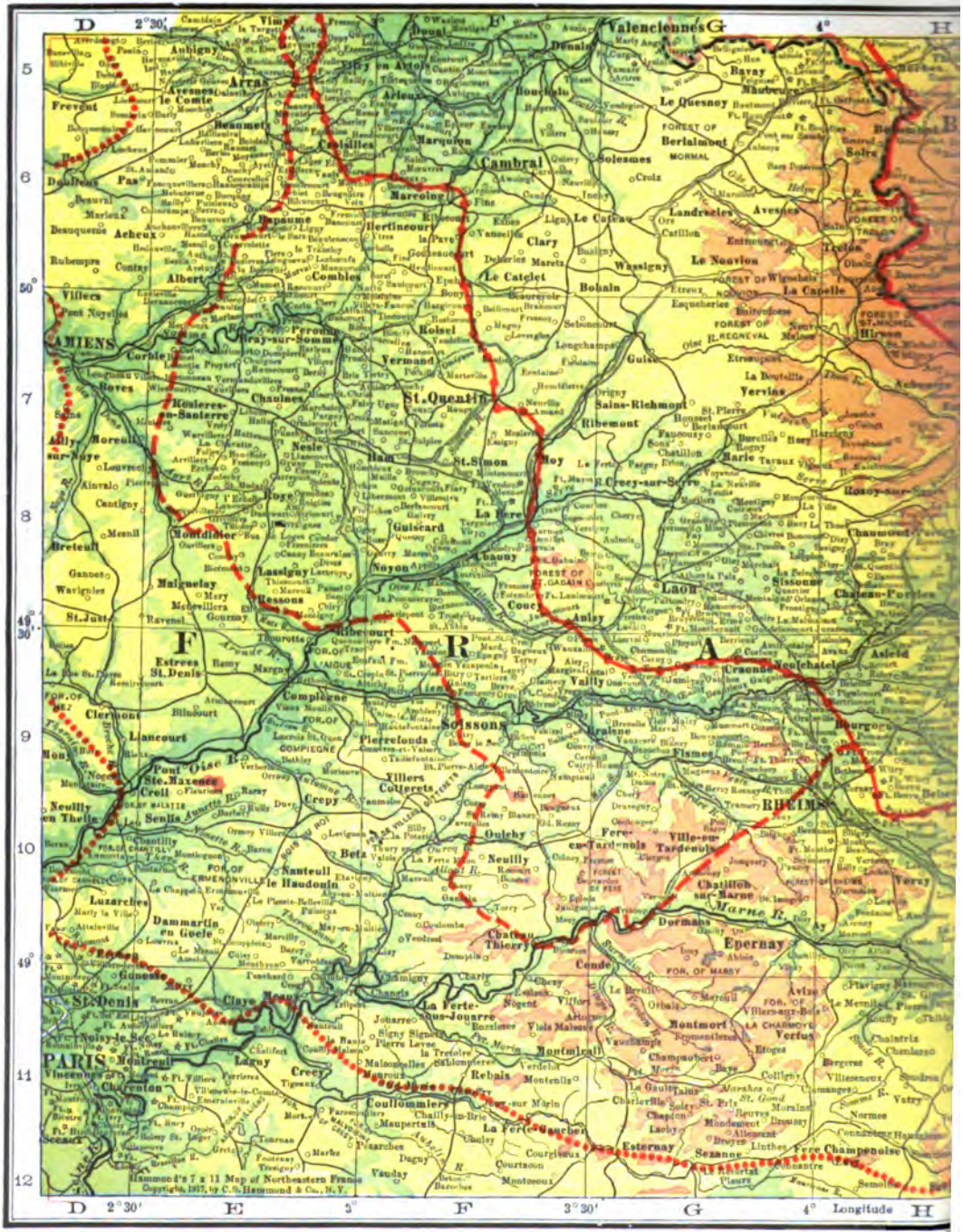
rom Sea-level mud and marsh to Mountain-top.

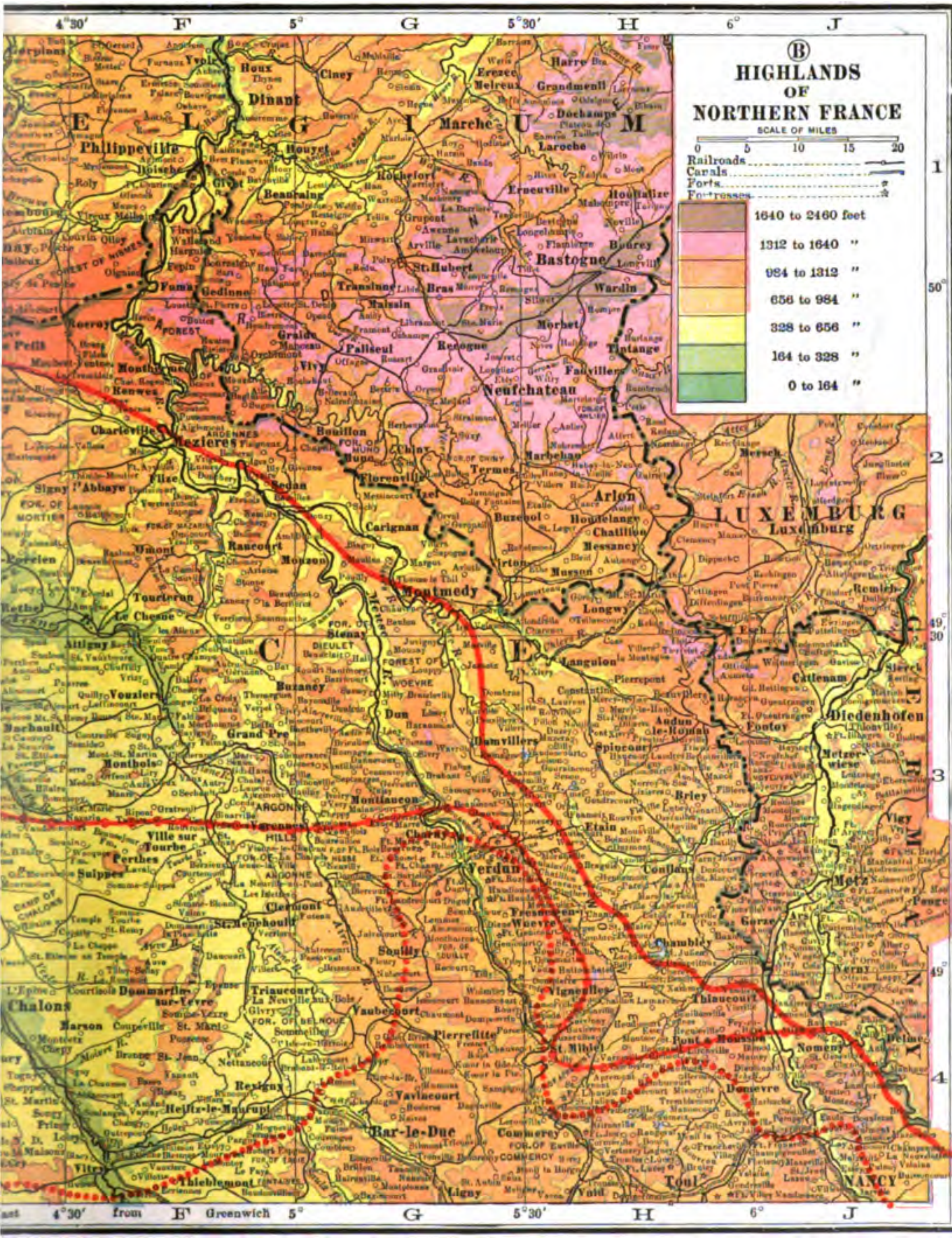


Where Germany's Southwestern thrust

"A"

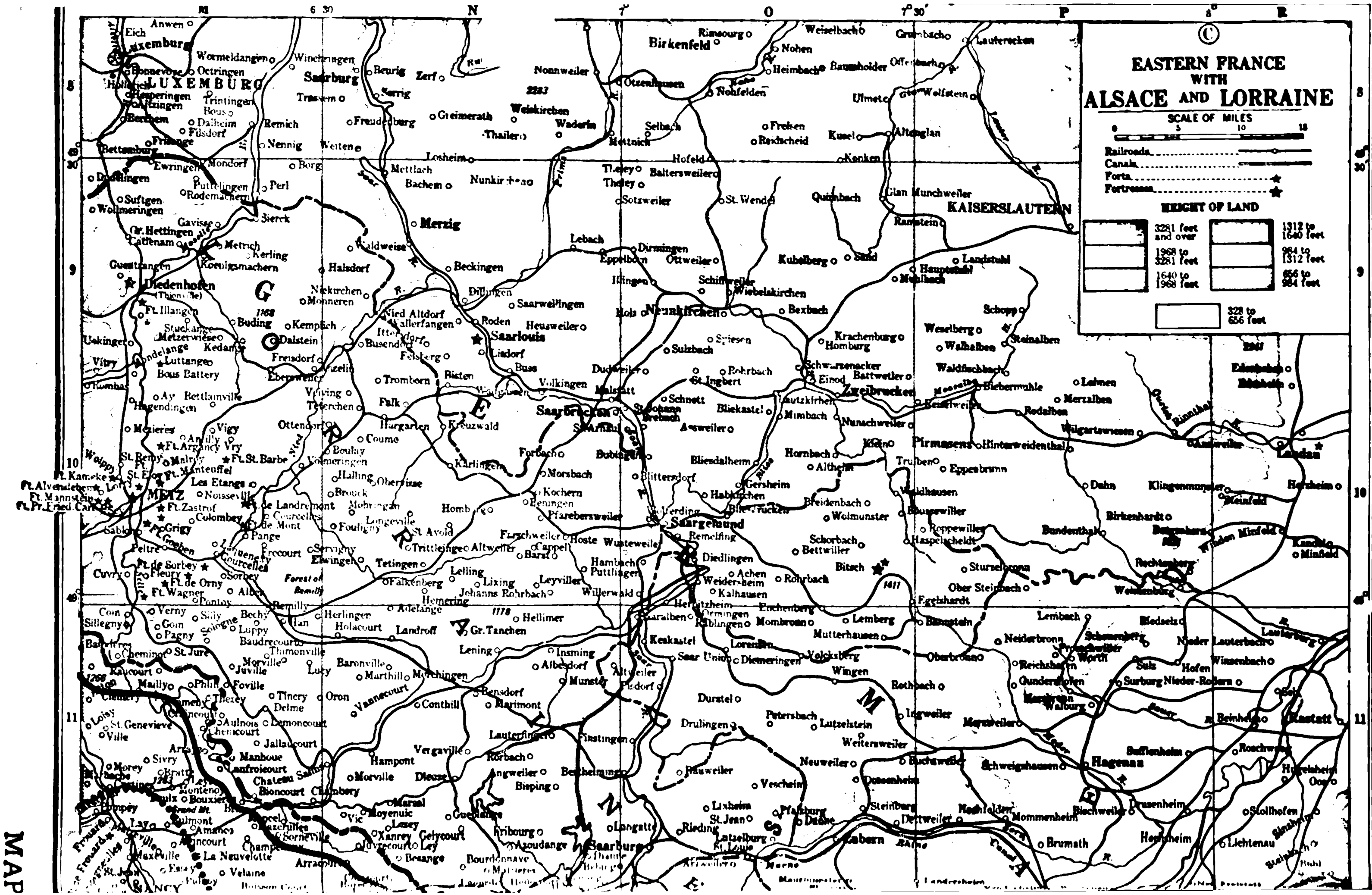
hiefly endangered Great Britain.


ARMISTICE LINE NOV. 11th 1918
FARTHEST GERMAN ADVANCE 1914
MAP
A Land upon which the Chaos of Desolation

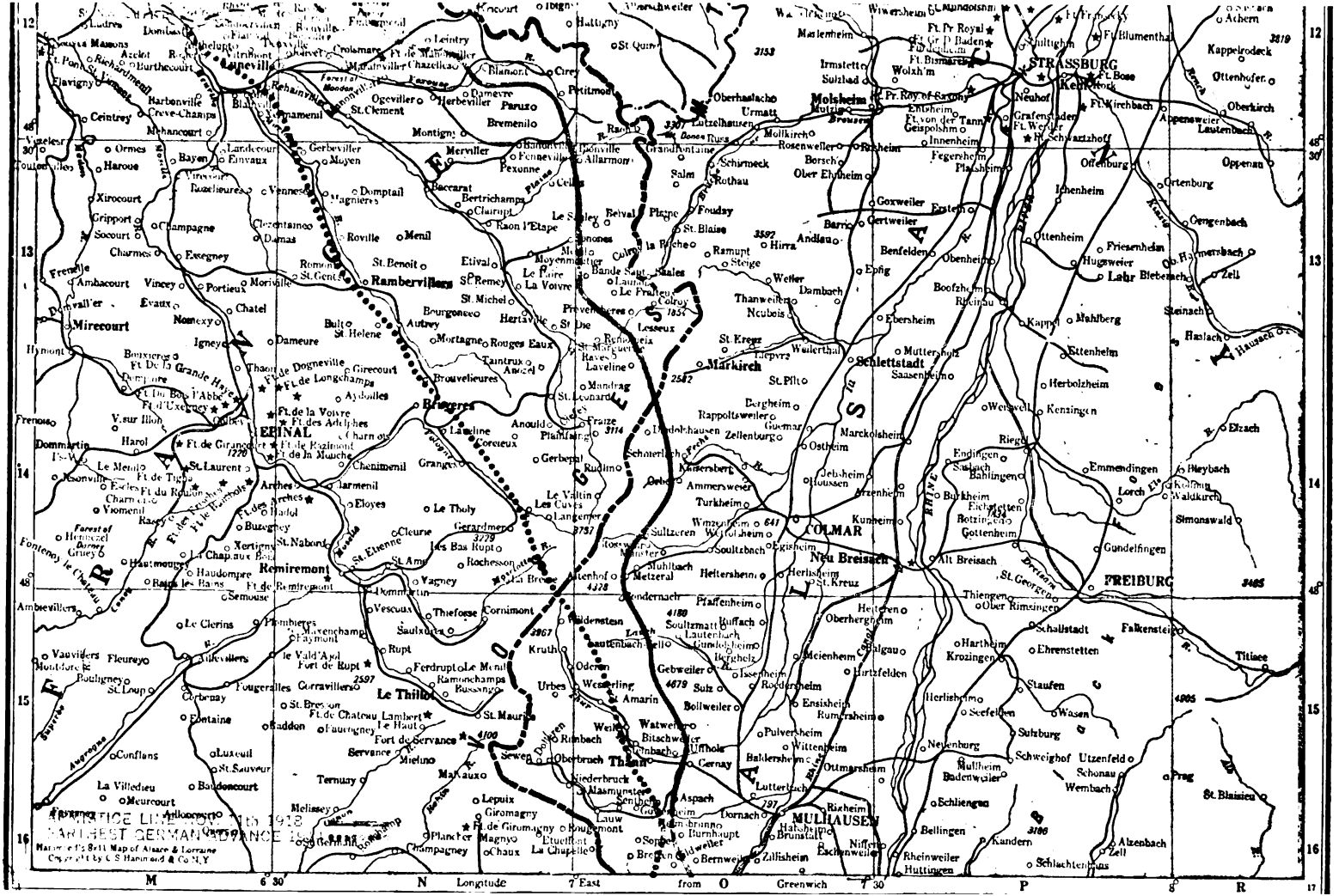


B FARTHEST ALLIED ADVANCE TO MARCH 1918 GERMAN ADVANCE 1918

has descended through Years of War.


EASTERN FRANCE
WITH
ALSACE AND LORRAINE
SCALE OF MILES
0 5 10 15
Railroads
Canals
Forts
Fortresses
HEIGHT OF LAND
3281 feet and over
1968 to 3281 feet
1640 to 1968 feet
1312 to 1640 feet
984 to 1312 feet
656 to 984 feet
328 to 656 feet
LUXEMBURG
KAISERSLAUTERN
Saarbrücken
Saarlouis
Merzig
Metz
Diedenhofen
Saargemünd
Zweibrücken
Pirmasens
Hagenau
Saarburg
Zabern
Bitsch
Landau

MAP



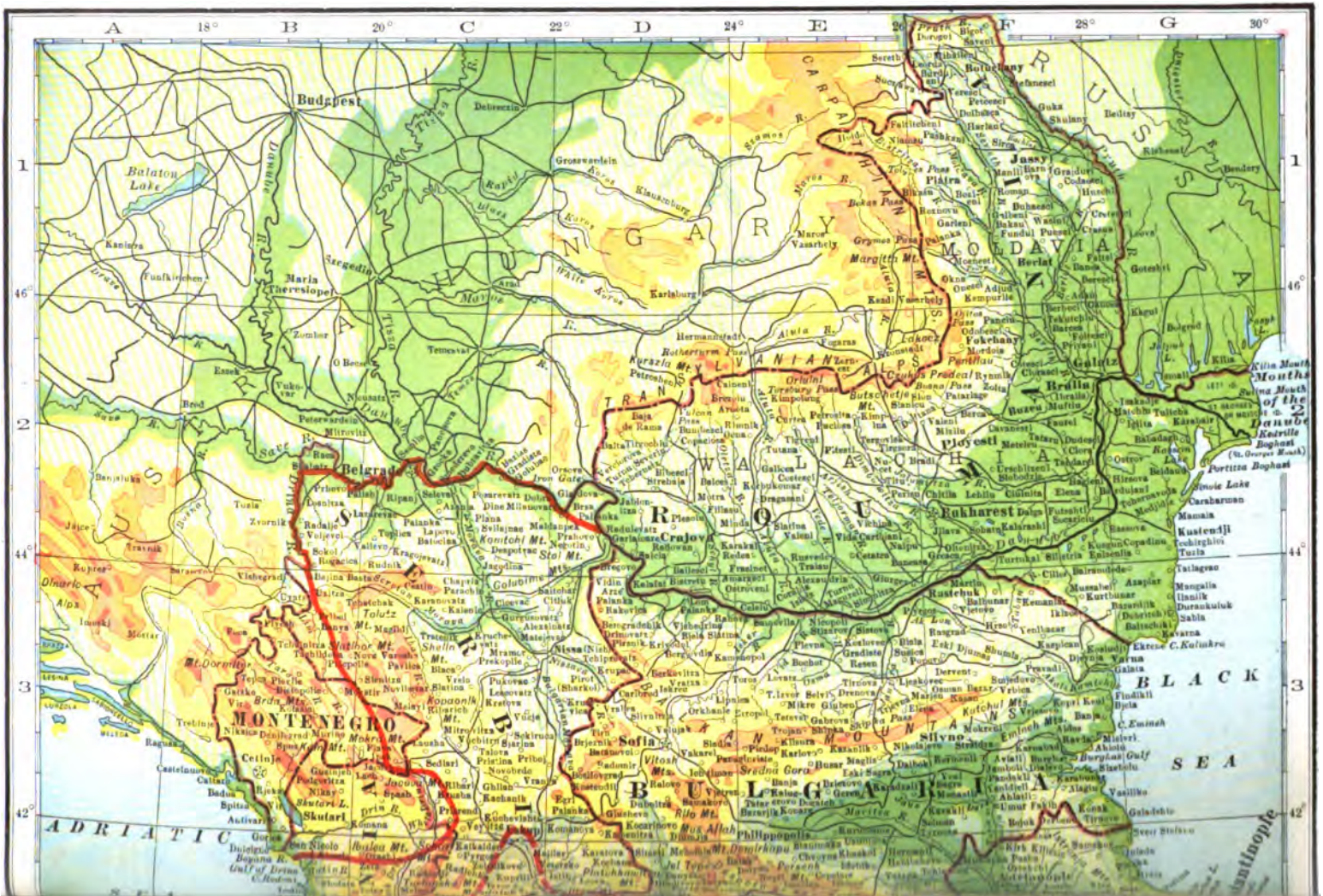
STRASSBURG
Kehl
Molsheim
Schlettstadt
Markirch
COLMAR
Neu Breisach
FREIBURG
MULHAUSEN
Thann
Le Thillot
Remiremont
Rambervillers
Mirecourt
Lunéville
Bruyères
Lahr
Longitude
from
Greenwich

The Coast of Italy

A glance at the shores of the Adriatic shows that practically

lopes and Fears.

he good harbors lie on the Austrian and Dalmatian side


A
B
C
D
E
F
G
18°
20°
22°
24°
26°
28°
30°
1
2
3
46°
44°
42°
HUNGARY
Budapest
Balaton Lake
Danube R.
Tisza R.
Drava R.
Sava R.
Save R.
Debreczin
Szegedin
Maria Theresiopel
Zombor
Temesvar
Arad
Karlsburg
Kronstadt
Hermannstadt
Klausenburg
Grosswardein
Funfkirchen
Essek
Peterwardein
Mitrovitz
Belgrade
Semlin
Jagodina
Nissa
Sofia
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Constantinople
Rustchuk
Varna
Silistria
Bucharest
Crajova
Ploiesti
Galatz
Braila
Jassy
Moldavia
Wallachia
Transylvania
Carpathian Mts.
Danube Mouths
Kilia Mouth
St. George Mouth
Sulina Mouth
Portitza Boghaz
Kustendji
Constanza
Tulcea
Kilia
Reni
Ismail
Akkerman
Bolgrad
Cahul
Leova
Bender
Kischenef
Jassy
Galatz
Braila
Fokschany
Rimnik
Buzeo
Ploiesti
Bucharest
Giurgevo
Rustchuk
Varna
Silistria
Shumla
Widin
Plevna
Orkhanie
Tirnova
Sofia
Silvno
Kustendji
Black Sea
Euxine
Montenegro
Albania
Servia
Bosnia
Herzegovina
Dalmatia
Croatia
Slavonia
Adriatic
Scutari
Cattaro
Ragusa
Mostar
Sarajevo
Belgrade
Semlin
Nissa
Sofia
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Constantinople
Rustchuk
Varna
Silistria
Bucharest
Crajova
Ploiesti
Galatz
Braila
Jassy
Moldavia
Wallachia
Transylvania
Carpathian Mts.
Danube Mouths
Kilia Mouth
St. George Mouth
Sulina Mouth
Portitza Boghaz
Kustendji
Constanza
Tulcea
Kilia
Reni
Ismail
Akkerman
Bolgrad
Cahul
Leova
Bender
Kischenef
Jassy
Galatz
Braila
Fokschany
Rimnik
Buzeo
Ploiesti
Bucharest
Giurgevo
Rustchuk
Varna
Silistria
Shumla
Widin
Plevna
Orkhanie
Tirnova
Sofia
Silvno
Kustendji
Black Sea
Euxine
Montenegro
Albania
Servia
Bosnia
Herzegovina
Dalmatia
Croatia
Slavonia
Adriatic
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Ragusa
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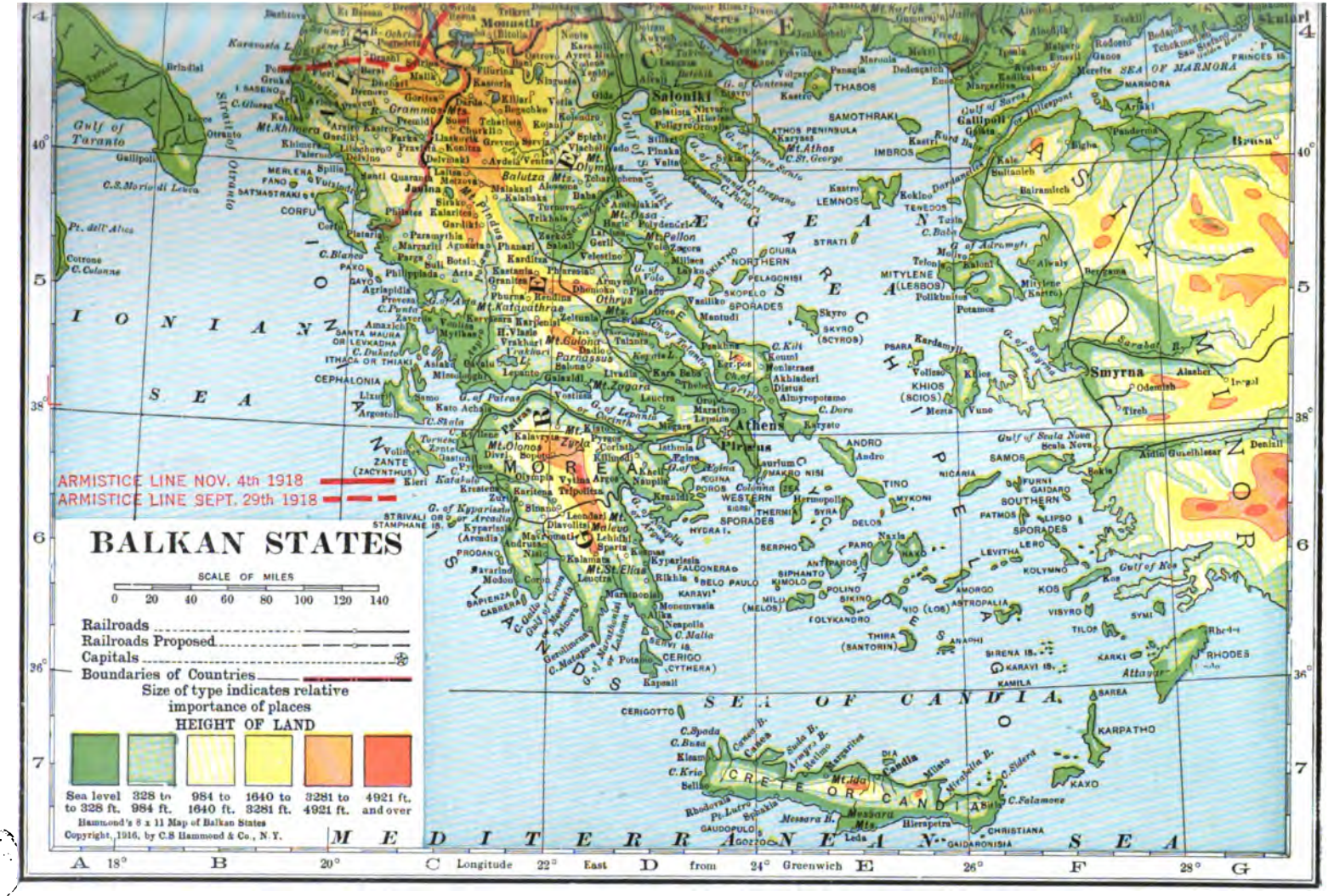
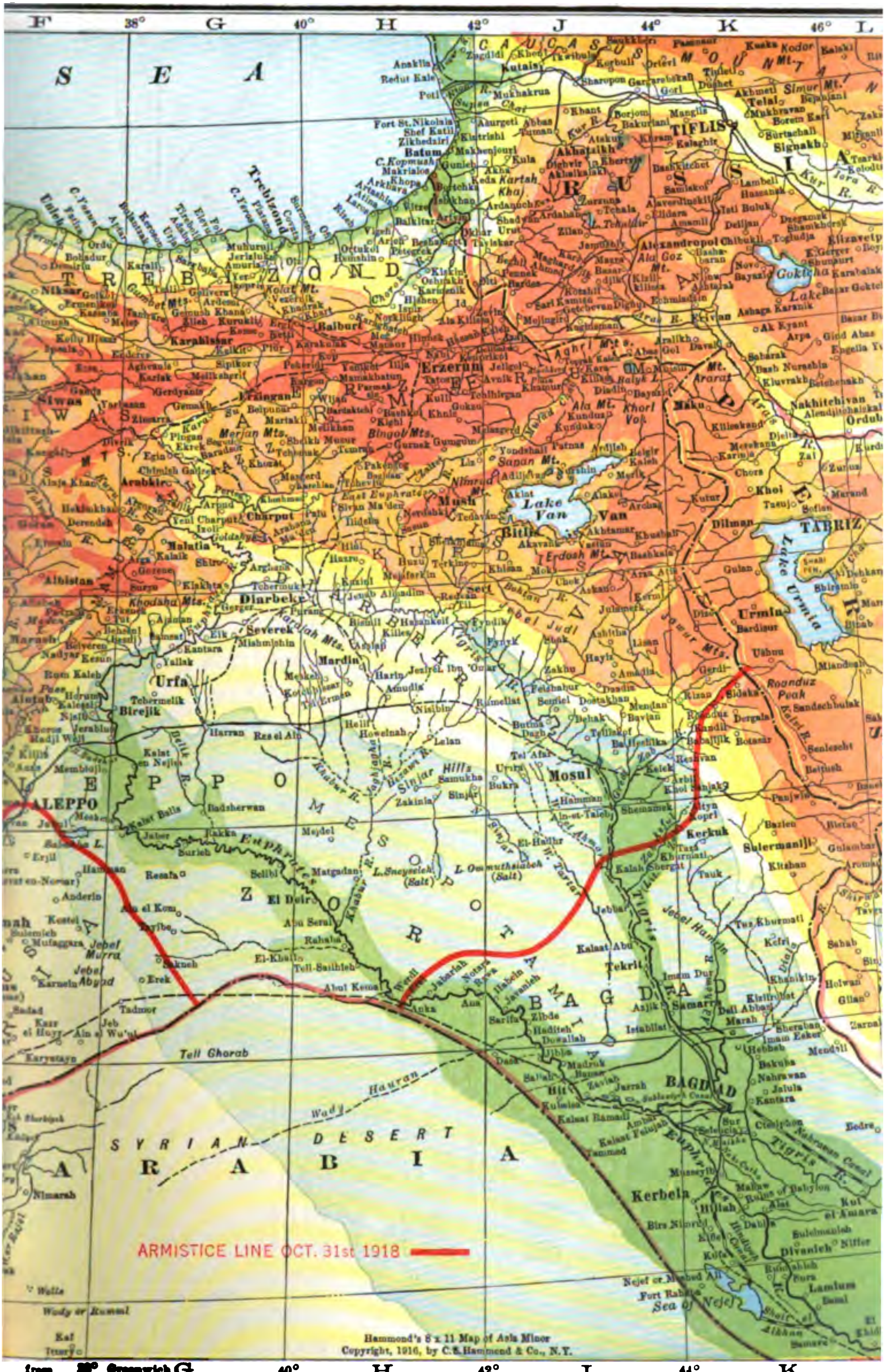
Sarajevo
Belgrade
Semlin
Nissa
Sofia
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Constantinople



The Powder Magazine of Europe.

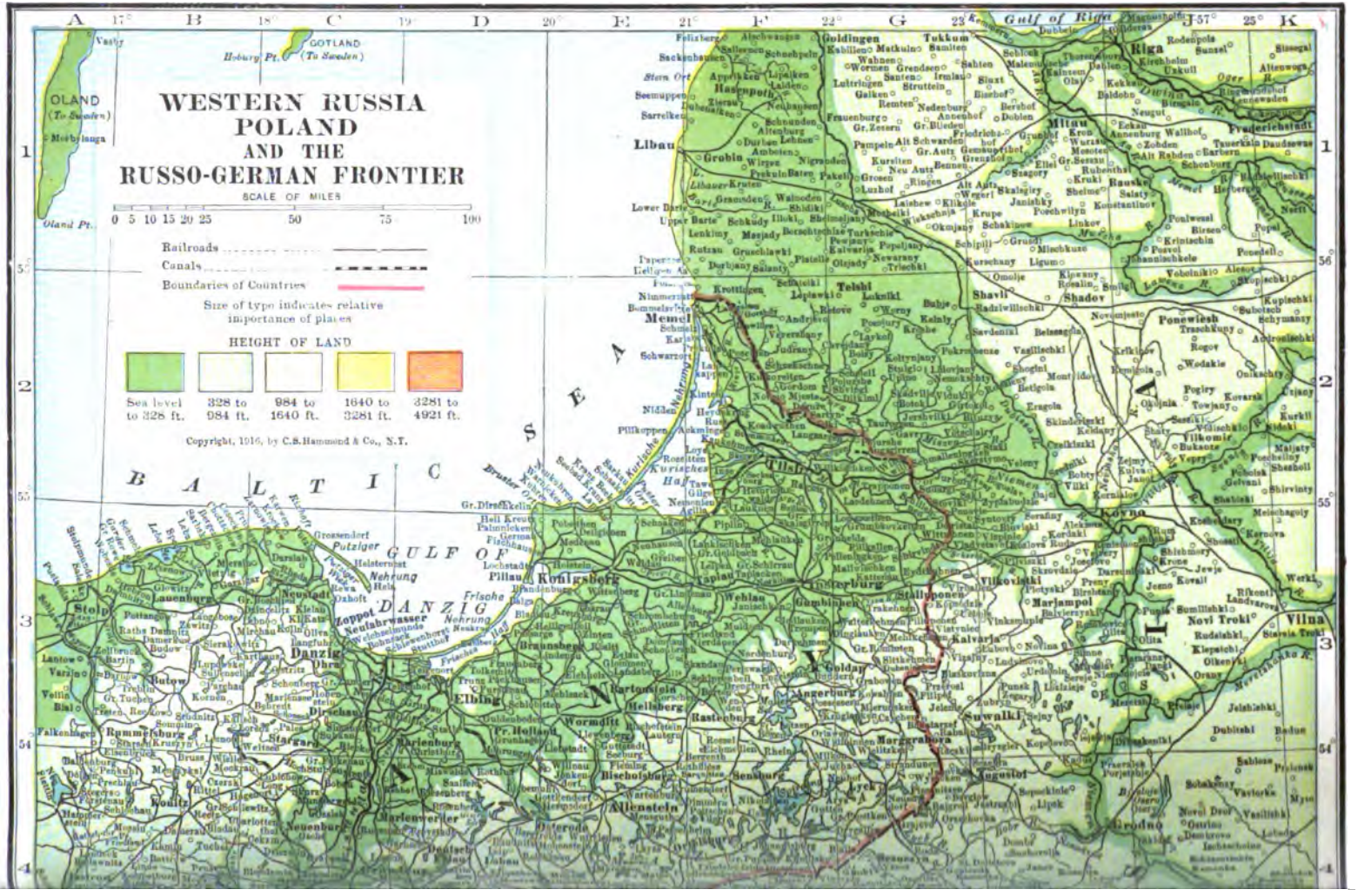
The Gatew

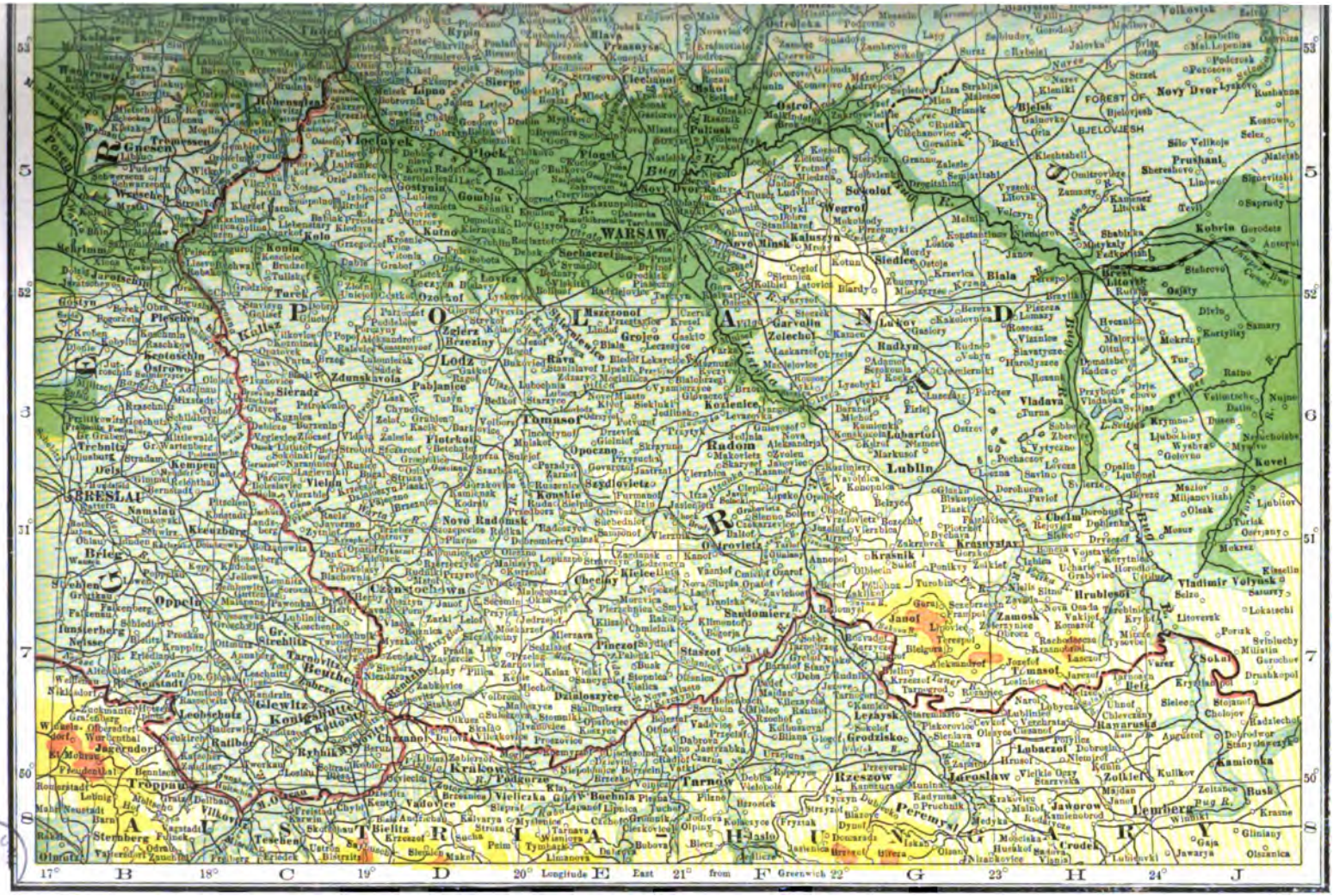
The scene of Great Britain's most humiliating failur



) the East.

nd some of her most brilliant successes in the World War

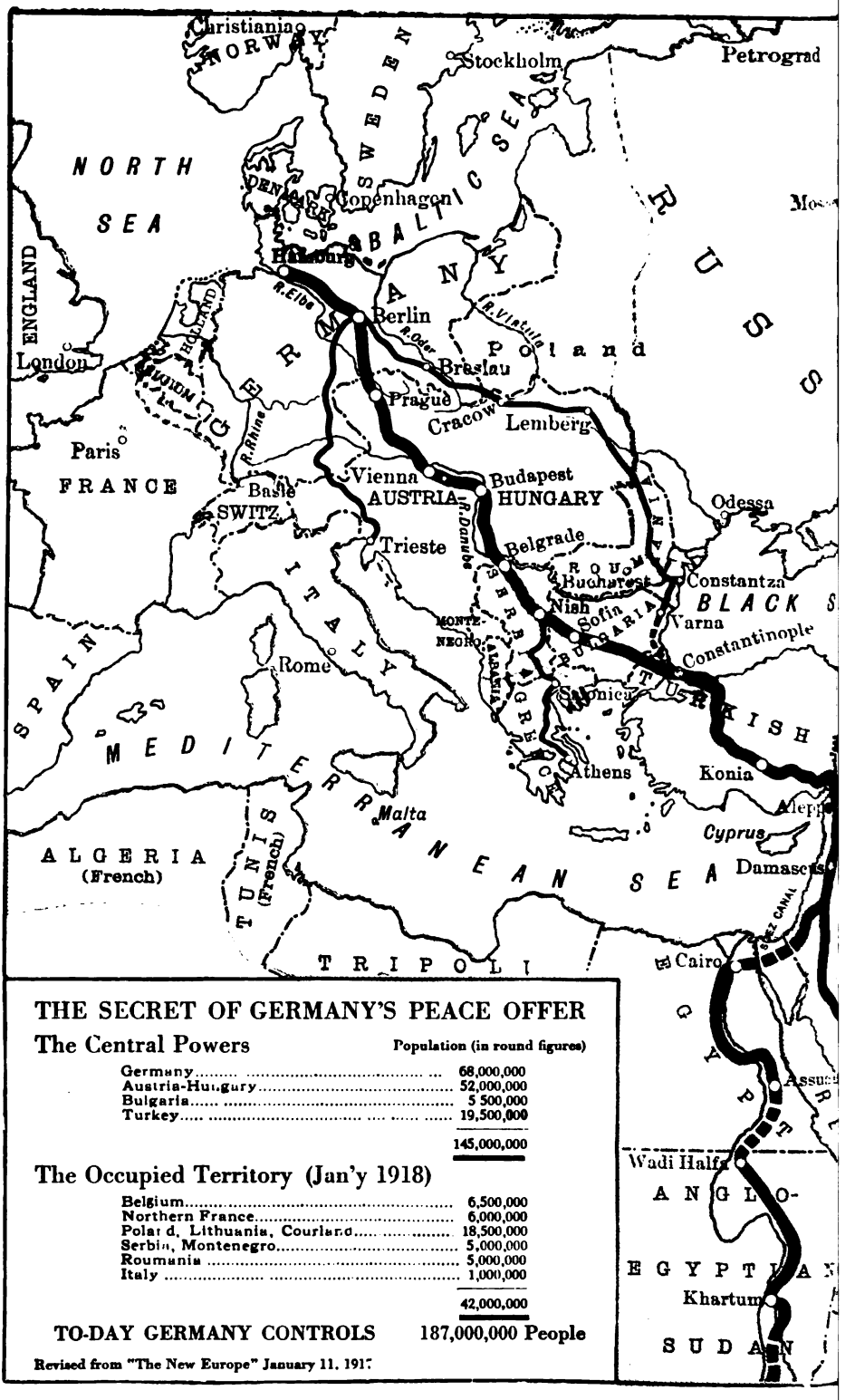

WESTERN RUSSIA
POLAND
AND THE
RUSSO-GERMAN FRONTIER
SCALE OF MILES
0 5 10 15 20 25 50 75 100
Railroads
Canals
Boundaries of Countries
Size of type indicates relative importance of places
HEIGHT OF LAND
Sea level to 328 ft.
328 to 984 ft.
984 to 1640 ft.
1640 to 3281 ft.
3281 to 4921 ft.
Copyright, 1916, by C.S.Hammond & Co., N.Y.
OLAND (To Sweden)
GOTLAND (To Sweden)
Hoburg Pt.
Oland Pt.
Gulf of Riga
BALTIC SEA
GULF OF DANZIG
Libau
Memel
Tilsit
Ragnit
Insterburg
Gumbinnen
Goldap
Kovno
Riga
Mitau
Shavli
Shadov
Ponewiesh
Vilkovishki
Marjampol
Kalvarja
Suwalki
Augustowo
Grodno
Vilna
Novi Troki
Danzig
Elbing
Marienburg
Konigsberg
Pillau
Lyck
Allenstein
Bischofsburg
Rastenburg
Soldau
Neidenburg
Mlawa
Lomza
Ostrolenka
Prussian Lithuania
Russian Lithuania
Courland
Livonia
Samogitia
Suwalki
Augustowo



Where Germany's Plans were frustrated by Armistice Terms of Nov. 11th 1918

RUSSIA
IN EUROPE
AND CAUCASIA
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200 250
Railroads
Submarine Cables
Canals
Size of type indicates relative importance of places
ARCTIC OCEAN
KARA SEA
NOVA ZEMLA
Yalmal Peninsula
GULF OF OB
Kara Bay
Valgach I.
Kolguev I.
Kanin Peninsula
Kola Peninsula
LAPLAND
WHITE SEA
ARCHANGEL
Onega L.
Ladoga L.
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Stockholm
Gulf of Finland
PETROGRAD
BALTIC PROVINCES
Riga
Gulf of Riga
NOVGOROD
VOLOGDA
Totma
Nikolsk
Ekaterininskoe
KOSTROMA
YAROSLAV
VIATKA
Kotelnitch
Nolinsk
Kazan
Perm
Yekaterinburg
Solikamsk
Berezov
WESTERN SIBERIA
Ob R.
Yenisei R.
Petchora R.
Mezen
Pinega
Onega
Kem
Kandalaksha
Kola
Uleaborg
Tornea
Kemi
Brahestad
Gefle
Sundsvall
Hernosand
Christinestad
Bjorneborg
Abo
Aland Is.
Helsingfors
Wiborg
Kotka
Hangoe
Reval
Arensburg
Windau
Libau
Memel
Tilsit
Insterburg
Pillau
Konigsberg
Gumbinnen
Lyck
Bialystok
Grodno
Brest Litovsk
Pinsk
Minsk
Vilna
Kovno
Dwina R.
Volga R.
Kama R.
Vyatka R.
Oka R.
Don R.
Dnieper R.
Vistula R.
Niemen R.
Pregel R.
Duna R.
Narova R.
Neva R.
Svir R.
Sheksna R.
Mologa R.
Tvertza R.
Msta R.
Volkhov R.
Luga R.
Pskov L.
Peipus L.
Ilmen L.
Bielo Ozero
Rybinsk
Yaroslav
Kostroma
Nijni Novgorod
Kazan
Simbirsk
Samara
Saratov
Tsaritsyn
Astrakhan
Caspian Sea
Kuma R.
Manytch R.
Sea of Azov
Taganrog
Rostov
Ekaterinoslav
Kharkov
Poltava
Kursk
Orel
Tula
Moscow
Smolensk
Mogilev
Vitebsk
Dwinsk
Warsaw
Ivangorod
Lublin
Kholm
Brest Litovsk
Volhynia
Podolia
Kiev
Tchernigov
Gomel
Bobruisk
Pripet R.
Dniester R.
Bug R.
Vistula R.
Carpathian Mts.
Galicia
Austria
Prussia
Germany
Sweden
Norway
Finland
Russia
Great Russians
White Russians
Little Russians
Livonians
Esthonians
Courland
Lithuania
Poland
Volhynia
Podolia
Bessarabia
Crimea
Sea of Azov
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Sea of Marmora
Constantinople
Bosphorus
Dardanelles
Archipelago
Mediterranean Sea
Adriatic Sea
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
Gulf of Riga
Baltic Sea
Sound
Cattegat
Skagerrack
North Sea
North Cape
Hammerfest
Tromsoe
Vardo
Varanger Fjord
Catherine Harbor
Enare L.
Tana R.
Kemi R.
Uleaborg
Tornea
Gefle
Sundsvall
Hernosand
Christinestad
Bjorneborg
Abo
Aland Is.
Helsingfors
Wiborg
Kotka
Hangoe
Reval
Arensburg
Windau
Libau
Memel
Tilsit
Insterburg
Pillau
Konigsberg
Gumbinnen
Lyck
Bialystok
Grodno
Brest Litovsk
Pinsk
Minsk
Vilna
Kovno
Dwina R.
Volga R.
Kama R.
Vyatka R.
Oka R.
Don R.
Dnieper R.
Vistula R.
Niemen R.
Pregel R.
Duna R.
Narova R.
Neva R.
Svir R.
Sheksna R.
Mologa R.
Tvertza R.
Msta R.
Volkhov R.
Luga R.
Pskov L.
Peipus L.
Ilmen L.
Bielo Ozero
Rybinsk
Yaroslav
Kostroma
Nijni Novgorod
Kazan
Simbirsk
Samara
Saratov
Tsaritsyn
Astrakhan
Caspian Sea
Kuma R.
Manytch R.
Sea of Azov
Taganrog
Rostov
Ekaterinoslav
Kharkov
Poltava
Kursk
Orel
Tula
Moscow
Smolensk
Mogilev
Vitebsk
Dwinsk
Warsaw
Ivangorod
Lublin
Kholm
Brest Litovsk
Volhynia
Podolia
Kiev
Tchernigov
Gomel
Bobruisk
Pripet R.
Dniester R.
Bug R.
Vistula R.
Carpathian Mts.
Galicia
Austria
Prussia
Germany
Sweden
Norway
Finland
Russia
Great Russians
White Russians
Little Russians
Livonians
Esthonians
Courland
Lithuania
Poland
Volhynia
Podolia
Bessarabia
Crimea
Sea of Azov
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Sea of Marmora
Constantinople
Bosphorus
Dardanelles
Archipelago
Mediterranean Sea
Adriatic Sea
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
Gulf of Riga
Baltic Sea
Sound
Cattegat
Skagerrack
North Sea

The Country that was Russia. The New Ukranian Republic outlined in red.



THE SECRET OF GERMANY'S PEACE OFFER

The Central Powers

	Population (in round figures)
Germany	68,000,000
Austria-Hungary	52,000,000
Bulgaria	5 500,000
Turkey	19,500,000
	145,000,000

The Occupied Territory (Jan'y 1918)

Belgium	6,500,000
Northern France	6,000,000
Poland, Lithuania, Courland	18,500,000
Serbia, Montenegro	5,000,000
Roumania	5,000,000
Italy	1,000,000
	42,000,000

TO-DAY GERMANY CONTROLS 187,000,000 People

Revised from "The New Europe" January 11, 1917

THE PAN-GERMAN PLAN

as realised by War

IN EUROPE AND IN ASIA

"Central Europe" and its Annexe in the Near East
(Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Turkey)

The Entente Powers

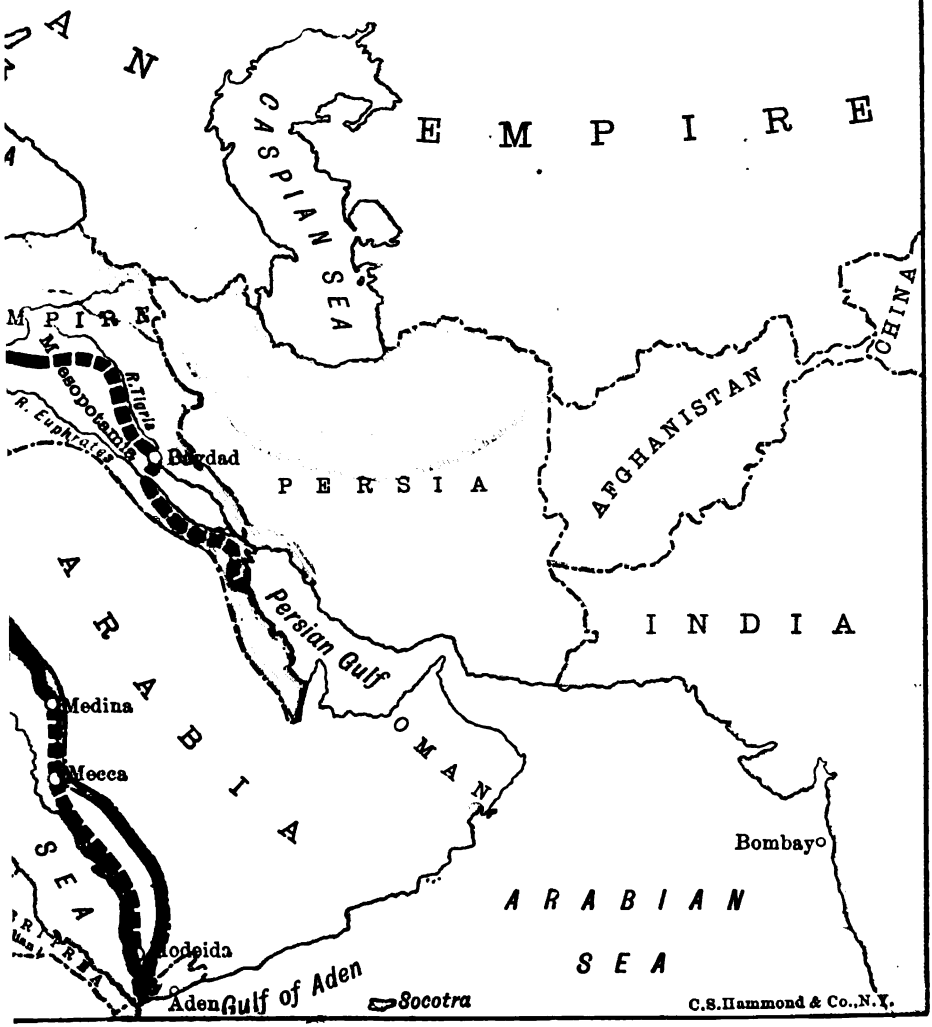
Territory occupied by Central Powers

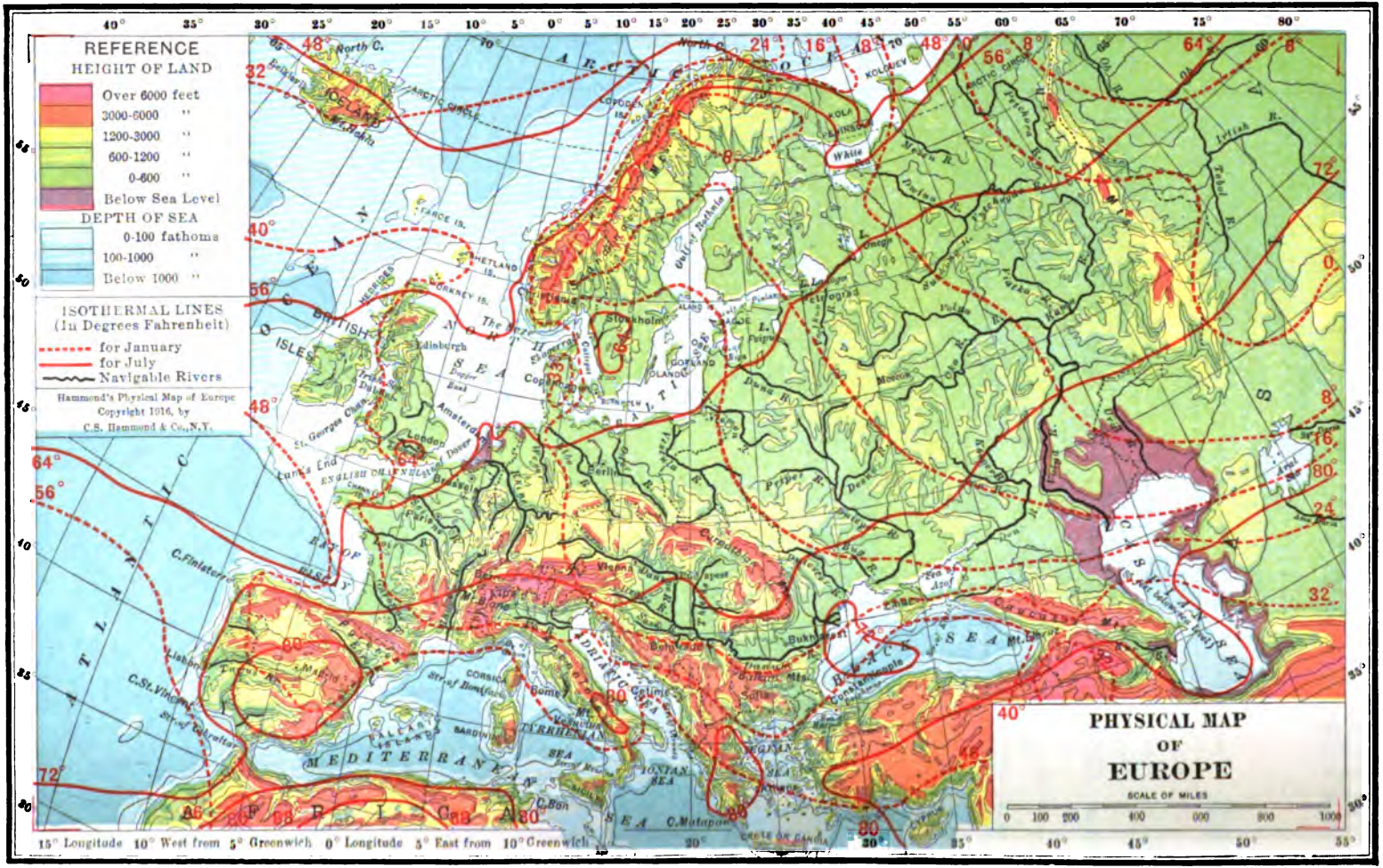
Territory occupied by Entente Powers

GERMANY'S MAIN ROUTE TO THE EAST
(Berlin-Bagdad, Berlin-Hodeida, Berlin-Cairo-Cape)

Supplementary Routes
(Berlin-Trieste, Berlin-Salonica-Athens, Berlin-Constantza-Constantinople)

Uncompleted sectors





The only Map of Europe which remains as it was in 1914.

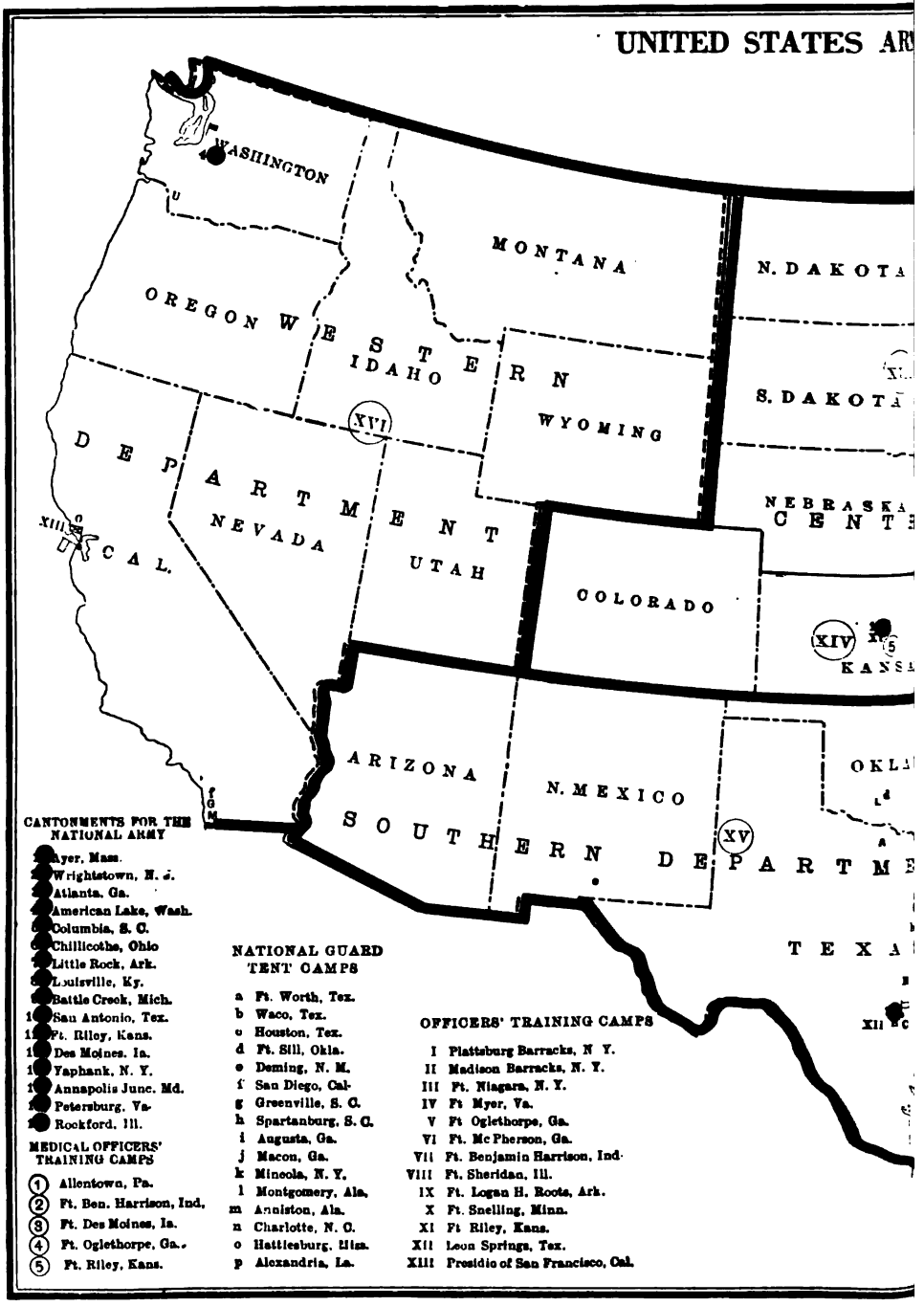
The Seething Melting-Pot of Europe

DISTRIBUTION OF NATIONALITIES
IN
SOUTH-EASTERN EUROPE
SCALE OF MILES
0
50
100
150
200
SLAVS
Poles
Ruthenians (Little Russians)
Czechs and Slovaks
Slovenes
Serbo-Croats
Macedonian Slavs
SLAVO-MONGOLS, Bulgarians
MONGOLS
Magyars
Turks
LATINS
Italians
Roumanians
Albanians
Greeks
Germans
Boundary of Concession to Italy by the Allies
Hammond's 8x11 Map of South-Eastern Europe
Showing the Distribution of Nationalities
Copyright, by C. S. Hammond & Co., N.Y.
GERMANY
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
LOWER AUSTRIA
UPPER AUSTRIA
VIENNA
Prague
Brunn
Munich
Budapest
SWITZERLAND
CARNIOLA
ISTRIA
BOSNIA
Sarajevo
HERCEGOVINA
MONTENEGRO
DURAZZO
ITALY
Longitude East 15 from Greenwich

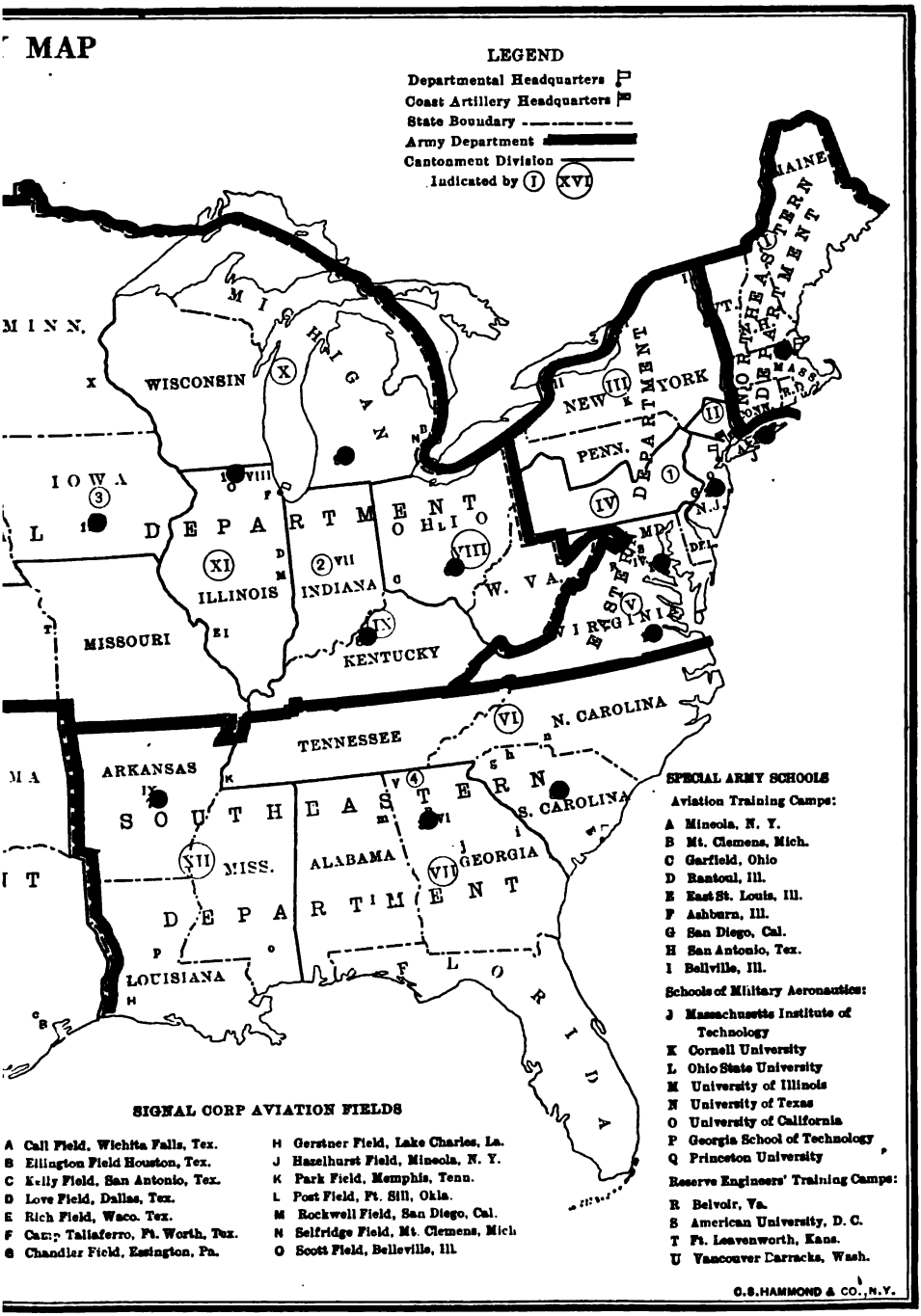
The "Cock-pi

30°
Lvov (Lemberg)
Tarnopol
Pruskref
Kamenetz Podolsk
Stanislau
Halicz
Stryi
Drohobycz
Jaroslav
Przemysl
Ternopol
Kolomea
Czernowitz
BUKOWINA
Suczawa
Jassy
Kischenef
Galatz
Braila
Odessa
Hermannstadt
Kronstadt
Arad
Temesvar
Lugos
Karansebes
Versecz
Nagyvarad
Debreczen
Szatmar Nemeti
Munkacs
Ungvar
Eperjes
Kaschau
Miskolcz
Egor
Bistritz
Maros Vasarhely
Kolozsvar
Szekely Udvarhely
Nagy Kikinda
Pancsova
Orsova
T. Gradiste
Petrovac
Negotin
Zajecar
Krusevac
Nish
Prokuplje
Kursumlie
Mitrovica
Vranja
Pirot
Knjazevac
Stalac
Ruschuk
Varna
Kustendji (Constantza)
BUKAREST
Jalomitza R.
Crajova
Alutus R.
Schyl R.
Danube R.
Iskar R.
Timok R.
Morava R.
Ibar R.
Lim R.
Drina R.
Save R.
Theiss R.
Maros R.
Aluta R.
Pruth R.
Sereth R.
Dniester R.
Bug R.
Dnieper R.
Kamenetz
Tarnica R.
Strwiaz R.
Dunajec R.
Poprad R.
Sajo R.
Bodrog R.
Szamos R.
Szamos Ujvar
Mezokovesd
Mezokeresztes
Mezotur
Szolnok
Czegled
Kecskemet
Nagykoros
Cegled
Monastir
Bitoli
Ochrida
Prilep
Veles
Kumanovo
Kratovo
Kotschana
Kotschani
Kustendil
Pirdop
Sofia
Samakow
Dubnitza
Strumitza
Drama
Seres
Kavala
Salonica
Gulf of Salonika
Mt. Athos
Athos
Thasos
Samothrake
Imbros
Gallipoli
Constantinople
Sea of Mamora
Idrianople
Philippopolis
Maritza R.
Struma R.
Vardar R.
Mesta R.
Black Sea
Balkan Mountains
Rhodope Mountains
Carpathian Mountains
Transylvanian Alps
Moldavia
Wallachia
Dobrudja
Bulgaria
Servia
Hungary
Roumania
35
40
25
17

f Europe."

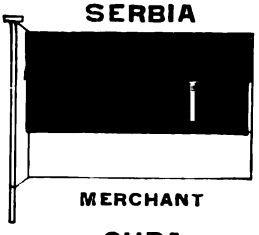


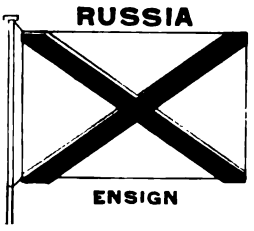
Where the United State

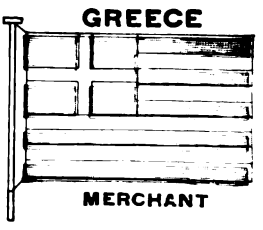


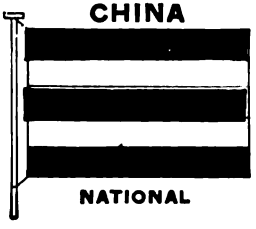
Army is in the Making.

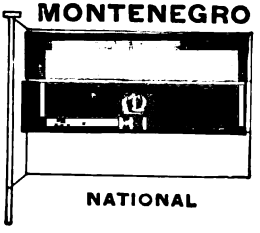
FLAGS OF THE ALLIES











AMERICA'S PRINCIPLES FOR WORLD SETTLEMENT

Q.—Is the world war really incomparably vaster than any preceding one?

A.—The money cost alone would show that it is. A Federal Reserve Bank estimate just before the end of the fourth year of war was that the world's daily war expenditure (figuring in both sides) closely approached 175 millions of dollars. During these four years, the increase in public debts of the twelve principal belligerents had been 116.7 billions—77.3 billions for the nine principal countries in the Allied group and 39.4 billions for Germany and Austria-Hungary. All the previous wars of all the world since the American Revolution (which includes such truly colossal wars as the Napoleonic wars, the Crimean War, the American Civil War, the Franco-Prussian and the Russo-Japanese Wars) cost altogether about 16 billions. Of these the Napoleonic Wars, lasting with intermissions through 22 years, cost about 6¼ billions.

Q.—Have expenses of this war increased or decreased?

A.—They have increased enormously. See pages 190 to 205 in this volume where war-costs up to the early part of 1918 are closely analyzed and compared with world wealth and world resources. The total daily cost of the war up to March 1, 1918, was estimated as $116,700,000 as against the estimate made in July, 1918, that the cost then was $175,000,000.

Q.—Are more nations involved in this war than in any previous one?

A.—The wars between England and France at various times involved practically all the Powers and States of Europe, and the actual armed conflict extended to Canada on the American continent and to India in Asia. But this war has involved in addition the States of Central and South America and such countries as China, Japan and Siam, which never figured in a European continental war before.

Q.—Is this truly, then, named "The World War"?

A.—It is so named with absolute accuracy. At the end of the fourth year (August, 1918) practically 95 per cent of the world's population was in the war. The countries still classed as neutral combined had only 130 million population, and a quarter of these were natives of the Dutch East India possessions, whereas the countries actually at war had a combined population, including colonials, of more than 1,700 millions. The proportion of the earth's surface left nominally at peace, and the relation of proportions between the two opposing sides, are strikingly shown in the map in this volume: "The World at War."

Q.—How do the opposing forces compare in power?

A.—The Entente Allies and the United States had 94.4 per cent of the area of the warring nations; 76.3 per cent of the population (even omitting the tremendous Asiatic population included in the British Empire); 78.5 per cent of the men of military age available for service—excluding Africans and Asiatics; 66 per cent of the men actually enrolled in the armies and navies; 80.5 per cent of the national wealth; 83.1 per cent of the national income—considered as the yearly earnings of the peoples.

The combined debt of the Allies in March, 1918, was 14.7 per cent of their wealth, that of the Central Powers 28.7 per cent of their wealth. The annual interest charge of the latter was 11.8 per cent of their national income against 4.6 per cent in the case of the Entente Allies.

The surplus food-producing regions of the world were practically all controlled by the Entente, either directly or through command of the seas. The same thing was largely true of the metals and coal.

Q.—Exactly what was the alignment in August, 1918, at the beginning of the fifth war year?

A.—On the side of the Central Powers

it was: Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Germany, Turkey.

On the side of the Entente Allies: Belgium, Brazil, China, Costa Rica, Cuba, France, Great Britain, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Italy, Japan, Liberia, Montenegro, Nicaragua, Panama, Portugal, San Marino, Serbia, Siam, United States of America.

The following had severed diplomatic relations, though not declaring war up to that date: Bolivia, Egypt, Peru, Uruguay.

Q.—Had any nations withdrawn from the war at the end of the fourth year?

A.—Russia withdrew from the war in March, 1918; Roumania withdrew in May, 1918; Bulgaria in September, 1918.

Q.—What nations are actually included under the term "Allies"?

A.—On September 5, 1914, Great Britain, France and Russia as the big nations and Serbia and Montenegro as the small nations united in the war against the Central Powers signed the famous Pact of London in which all pledged themselves not to make a separate peace. Japan signed later, and Italy signed when she entered the war. As the term was used later, it meant the nations that were combined in war against the Central Powers, but the actual signatories of the Pact were only those mentioned here.

Q.—Is the United States one of the Allies?

A.—No. The United States freely offered and gave its aid to the full extent of its resources, and willingly placed its Expeditionary Forces under the supreme command of the French Commander-in-Chief of the Allied forces. But it was not allied with the signatories of the Pact of London. The War Cyclopedia (U. S. Committee on Public Information) says: "The United States has made no alliance with any of its associates and is not bound by any agreements, nor has it any aim but to 'make the world safe for democracy.'"

Q.—What is the "Balance of Power"?

A.—It is a principle whose effective observance began after the fall of Napoleon, when the nations opposed to him deemed that future peace might be assured by preventing any one nation from again becoming over-powerful. France was, therefore, stripped of so much territory that she should never regain the overwhelming influence she once had. The principle was gradually extended.

The theory of the balance of power became the keystone of European politics, and its maintenance has been considered so important in the minds of the statesmen of Europe that few scruples have been allowed to stand in the way when it was threatened.

At first the "balance of power" was upheld by the combination of all nations against any one that grew too large. They made occasional treaties to act jointly, but always the established precedent was that if at any time the *status quo* was destroyed, the treaties were void. Thus, if any state, however small, should shift its boundaries, any other state would hold itself free to abrogate existing treaties, and form new treaties to establish a new balance of power.

Q.—Is Pan-Americanism like Pan-Germanism or Pan-Slavism?

A.—No. The Pan-Nationalistic movements of Europe all looked more or less toward obtaining for certain races or nationalities a hegemony over the rest—a political ascendency and often a complete rule. Pan-Americanism, to the contrary, does not mean the ascendency in any manner of any particular American nation or race, or of any group of American nations. President Wilson expressed the ideals of the United States when he said, in his third annual Message (December 7, 1915), "We will aid and befriend Mexico, but we will not coerce her; and our course with regard to her ought to be sufficient proof to all America that we seek no political suzerainty or selfish control. The moral is, that the States of America are not hostile rivals, but co-operating friends, and that their growing sense of community of interest, alike in matters political and in matters economic, is likely to give them a new significance in international affairs and in the political history of the world. This is Pan-Americanism. It has none of the spirit of empire in it. It is the embodiment, the effectual embodiment, of the spirit of law and independence and liberty and mutual service."

Q.—Is the United States on record as favoring a League of Nations?

A.—It is on record as favoring a league of nations to preserve peace and guarantee justice. The principle was announced as early as May 27, 1916, before a meeting in Washington of the League to En-

force Peace, in the form of a speech by President Wilson. He said that the United States is willing to become a partner in any feasible association of nations formed in order to realize these objects: (1) that every people has a right to choose the sovereignty under which they shall live; (2) that the small states of the world have a right to enjoy the same respect for their sovereignty and for their territorial integrity that great nations insist on; (3) that the world has a right to be free from every disturbance of its peace that has its origin in aggression and disregard of the rights of people and nations.

Q.—When did war begin between the United States and Germany?

A.—It began formally shortly after noon, April 6, 1917, when President Wilson signed the joint resolution passed by both houses of Congress declaring: "That the state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government which has been thrust upon the United States is hereby formally declared." This, however, was only the formal beginning. Actually, the world realized that war existed from the date of the President's appearance before the Special Session of Congress (the evening of April 2) in which he delivered his message asking Congress to declare the recent submarine measures of the German Government to be in effect nothing less than war against the Government and people of the United States. The State Department had immediately sent this news in the form of a circular telegram to all the American foreign missions.

Q.—How long before this had diplomatic relations been severed?

A.—On February 3, 1917, the President addressed Congress reviewing the submarine issue and announcing that he had directed the Secretary of State to announce to the German Ambassador that all diplomatic relations between the United States and Germany were severed, that the American Ambassador at Berlin would be withdrawn immediately, and that the American Secretary of State had been instructed to give the German Ambassador at Washington his passports. Germany had been warned after the *Sussex* case that a continuance of her methods of submarine warfare would have this result.

Q.—What was the first official measure after we entered war?

A.—It was a presidential proclamation (dated April 6, 1917) that a state of war existed.

Q.—What did this proclamation order?

A.—Beyond the formal announcement of a state of war, the proclamation concerned itself almost wholly with the status of alien enemies—that is, male subjects of Germany then within our borders.

Q.—Was internment of enemy aliens ordered?

A.—No. They were enjoined to refrain from violating the laws, to refrain "from actual hostility or giving information, aid or comfort to the enemies of the United States" and to comply with all regulations made or to be made by the President. In return they were assured of remaining undisturbed in the peaceful pursuit of their lives and occupations except so far as restrictions might be necessary for their own protection or the safety of the United States.

Q.—What were the chief restrictions on enemy aliens?

A.—The President's proclamation of April 6, 1917, promulgated regulations providing that alien enemies must not possess any implement of war, explosives, aircraft, signalling device or wireless, anything in cipher, anything in invisible writing, or any form of cipher code. They were prohibited from being within one-half mile of any government or state camp, fort, arsenal, aircraft station, government vessel, navy yard or any factory for making any product for the army or navy. It was provided also that they should not write or publish any attack on the government, on Congress, or on the measures and policies adopted by the government or against any person in the service of states or Federal Government. There was a clause providing that enemy aliens must not reside without a permit in any localities that might be designated from time to time as prohibited areas.

Q.—Did the proclamation state the punishment for violation?

A.—Yes. There was one provision that an alien enemy suspected on reasonable

grounds of violating or preparing to violate the regulations, must remove to any location designated by the President and stay there until he received a permit to leave. The final clause in the proclamation added that an alien enemy who violated or attempted to violate any presidential regulation, or any criminal law of the United States, or who might be believed on reasonable grounds to be aiding or about to aid the enemy, should be subject to summary arrest by the United States marshal and to confinement in such penitentiary, prison jail, military camp, or other place as the President might designate.

Q.—Does the espionage act cover only cases of actual spies?

A.—No. The act (approved by Congress June 15, 1917) is one of the most sweeping measures ever placed on the statute books of the United States. It does not limit itself to the matter of spying or conveying information to the enemy. It gives the President of the United States absolute control over the movement of all vessels in our waters, with the right to take possession of them, foreign or domestic. It also gives the President power to prohibit exportations of any given article at any time or to any country. The use of search warrants is greatly extended by this law; and by restrictions on the use of the mails the President is enabled to forbid the mails to those whom he (or his officers of government) may hold to be misusing them.

Q.—Did our first declaration of war include Germany's Allies?

A.—No. The declaration of a state of war was against Germany alone. Formally and officially, we still remained at peace with Germany's allies, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey.

Q.—What was the vote in Congress on war with Germany?

A.—The Senate adopted the war resolution on April 4 by a vote of 82 to 6. At 3 a. m. April 6 the House of Representatives adopted the resolution by a vote of 373 to 50.

Q.—How did Congress vote on war with Austria-Hungary?

A.—The joint resolution was adopted by both Houses with only one vote (Socialist) in opposition.

Q.—At what date did we enter formally into war with Austria-Hungary?

A.—On December 4, 1917, in his Fifth Annual Message to Congress, the President recommended that Congress declare the United States to be in a state of war with Austria-Hungary. The Senate and the House adopted a joint resolution to that effect on December 7.

Q.—Did we sever diplomatic relations with Turkey when we entered war?

A.—No. Turkey severed diplomatic relations with us. The American Legation at Berne, Switzerland, informed the Secretary of State on April 20, 1917, that as the United States had declared itself to be in a state of war with Germany, the Ottoman Government's ally, it was necessary for the Ottoman government to rupture diplomatic relations with the United States. American interests were confided to the Swedish Minister.

Q.—Did diplomatic relations continue with Bulgaria?

A.—Up to September 27, 1918, when Bulgaria asked the Allies for an armistice, our diplomatic relations with Bulgaria had not been severed.

Q.—What American Governments declared war on Germany after we did?

A.—The West Indian Republic of Cuba and the Central American Republic of Panama declared war on April 7, 1917. Brazil severed diplomatic relations on April 11 and declared war October 26, 1917. Bolivia severed diplomatic relations without declaring war April 13. Guatemala followed suit April 28 and declared war April 23, 1918. Haiti did so June 18, 1917, and declared war in July, 1918. Peru severed relations October 6, 1917, Uruguay October 7, and Ecuador December 8, 1917. Nicaragua declared war May 7, 1918. Costa Rica declared war May 24, 1918. Honduras declared war July 19, 1918.

Q.—Was the Czar still in power when we entered war?

A.—No. A revolution which began on March 11, 1917 in Petrograd dethroned

the Czar, overthrew not only the Government but the entire governmental system and proclaimed a Republic under a provisional government.

Q.—What was our first belligerent act after declaring the state of war?

A.—We seized or requisitioned more than 100 German merchant vessels which remained at shelter in our ports after the beginning of war in 1914. They aggregated 686,000 tons.

Q.—Did we send troops to France before the draft bill was in force?

A.—No. The Selective Draft Act was signed on May 18, 1917, and immediately proclaimed. In this proclamation the President said: "It is not an army that we must shape and train for war; it is a nation."

Q.—Does the selective draft law reach out beyond our territory?

A.—It reaches out beyond our geographical territory, viewing the United States as being territorially continental. It takes in Alaska, Hawaii and Porto Rico, these three localities occupying the status of Territories—that is, parts of the Union which have not yet reached the sovereign dignity of States, but whose people are a part of the United States and subject to laws governing the United States.

Q.—Did a great military operation signalize our entry into war?

A.—Yes. It was not any military activity by us, but it followed the United States declaration of war closely. On April 9, 1917, the British launched a great offensive against the German lines near Arras. The battles lasted until May 3, and the British gained from 3 to 5 miles along the front there, carrying the famous Vimy Ridge. On April 16, 1917, the French began an attack along the Aisne, advancing on a front of about 25 miles between Soissons and Rheims, and capturing Craonne Ridge.

Q.—What was the first belligerent activity of the United States?

A.—On May 4, 1918, the American navy entered into the war actively by means of a destroyer flotilla dispatched from this country and co-operating with the British fleet in the war-zone.

Q.—When did our first convoy of troops go to France?

A.—In the early morning of June 14, 1917, the transports of the first convoy sailed from New York with about 15,000 soldiers of the Regular Army, mostly infantrymen, with some ambulance and hospital men, motor truck drivers, signal corps experts, etc. The formation of this first expeditionary force was: 4 regiments of infantry, 1 signal corps company, 4 motor truck companies, 1 bakery company, ambulance company No. 6, field hospital No. 6 and about 500 stevedores. There also was a regiment of marines who had been assembled at Philadelphia.

Q.—Was General Pershing's staff the first body of American soldiers to reach Europe?

A.—The first of the fighting contingents, but not the first of the American army organizations. The first men to cross the ocean after the United States entered war were members of the Medical Officers' Reserve Corps. Members of the Medical Enlisted Reserve Corps had crossed with units for service in British hospitals, and when General Pershing arrived, many were already serving in France. Base Hospital No. 4 celebrated the anniversary of its arrival on French soil on May 25, 1918.

Q.—Did General Pershing accompany the first troops?

A.—No. He preceded them. General Pershing with a staff of 24 field officers, 30 line officers, 56 clerks, 4 interpreters and 67 enlisted men (182 men in all) left Governors Island at noon of May 28, 1917, and boarded the White Star steamship *Baltic*, which was anchored in the Lower Bay. The party landed in Liverpool June 8, proceeded to London, left there June 13, and reached France the same day, one day before the first troop convoy sailed from New York. They reached Paris June 14.

Q.—Was our first troop convoy very large?

A.—The first fleet of troop transports that went to France (sailing June 14, 1917) consisted of 18 transports. They were mostly American passenger ships from the coasting or West Indian trade, such as the *Havana, Saratoga, Tenadores,*

Pastores, Antilles, Momus, Lenape, Mallory, Finland and *San Jacinto*. The regular army transports *Hancock, Henderson* and *De Kalb* brought marines from Philadelphia to the rendezvous outside of New York harbor. The old transport *McClellan* served as refrigerator ship, and the *Montanan, Dakotan, Occidente* and *Luckenbach* brought up the rear with freight and animals.

Q.—When did the first American soldiers land in France?

A.—The fleet of 18 transports was met off June 22, 1917, by a flotilla of American destroyers which had preceded them for duty in the war-zone. On June 26 the *Tenadores, Saratoga, Havana* and *Pastores* docked at the French seaport which had been selected as the first of the American base ports. During the succeeding days the other transports came in and by July 2 the last of them was safely at a pier. On July 4, 1917, the first American troops ever seen in Paris (a battalion of infantry) marched through that city to parade at the laying of a wreath on Lafayette's tomb.

Q.—What was America's first diplomatic activity in the world war?

A.—It was an identical note sent out on August 6, 1914, 1 p. m., instructing the American Ambassadors at London, Berlin, Vienna, St. Petersburgh (not then called Petrograd), Paris and Brussels to inquire whether the governments to which they were accredited were willing to agree that the laws for naval warfare as laid down in 1909 by the Declaration of London should be applicable to the war then under way. The United States expressed its belief that an acceptance of these laws would prevent grave misunderstandings which otherwise might arise as to the relations between neutrals and belligerents.

Q.—What was the Declaration of London?

A.—The Declaration of London laid down rules for the maritime phases of war. These rules were decided advances over previous practices and went far to safeguard the rights of neutrals. They covered the conduct of naval war, blockade, and the treatment of neutral shipping, and they defined and listed contraband. The Declaration was agreed to on February 26, 1909 by most of the great nations. The United States, Great Britain, Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Russia, Italy, Japan, Holland and Spain were represented. It had not been ratified by all the governments, however, although it had been assumed that all would consider themselves bound by it in time of war.

Q.—Did the belligerents decline to observe the Declaration of London?

A.—No. But they differed in their attitude toward its provisions. The salient features of the replies were as follows: From Ambassador Penfield, Vienna, August 13, 1914: "Austro-Hungarian Government have instructed their forces to observe stipulations of Declaration of London as applied to naval as well as land warfare during present conflict conditional on like observance by enemy." From Mr. Gerard, Berlin, August 22, 1914: "German Government will apply the Declaration of London provided its provisions are not disregarded by other belligerents." (How the German Government actually did conduct sea warfare the world knows only too well.) Ambassador Page, London, August 27, 1914, forwarded notes and memorandums from the British foreign office, the salient passage in which was: "His Majesty's Government who attach great importance to the views in your Excellency's note and are animated by a keen desire to consult as far as possible the interests of neutral countries, have pleasure in stating that they have decided to adopt generally the rules of the declaration in question, subject to certain modifications and additions which they judge indispensable to the efficient conduct of their naval operations." The Russian government, on August 27, accepted the Declaration of London "with exact modifications adopted by England and France." Ambassador Herrick, Paris, September 3, 1914, informed Washington: "The French Government will observe the provisions of the Declaration of London with following reservations." The reservations, like the British, concerned nature and definitions of contraband, the status of neutral ships carrying contraband, etc.

Q.—Did the United States continue its efforts?

A.—In notes dated October 22, 1914, to Ambassador Page, London, and October 24 to Ambassador Gerard, Berlin, the United States, referring to the modifications, said that the American Government "feels obliged to withdraw its suggestion that the Declaration of London be adopted as a temporary code of warfare during the present war; that therefore this Gov-

ernment (United States) will insist that the rights and duties of the United States and its citizens be defined by the existing rules of international law and the treaties of the United States without regard to the provisions of the Declaration of London; and that this Government reserves to itself the right to enter a protest or demand in each case in which those rights and duties so defined are violated or their free exercise interfered with."

Q.—What was the first German war-zone decree?

A.—It was a proclamation issued at Berlin February 4, 1915, saying: "(1) The waters surrounding Great Britain and Ireland, including the whole British Channel, are hereby declared to be war zone. On and after the 18th of February, 1915, every enemy merchant ship found in the said war zone will be destroyed without its being always possible to avert the dangers threatening the crews and passengers on that account. (2) Even neutral ships are exposed to danger in the war zone as in view of the misuse of neutral flags ordered on January 31 by the British Government and of the accidents of naval war, it can not be always avoided to strike even neutral ships in attacks that are directed at enemy ships." In an accompanying memorandum the German Government claimed as justification that the British Government had from the beginning violated the laws of nations, especially the Declarations of London and Paris, and that in addition it had declared the whole North Sea between Scotland and Norway to be comprised within the seat of war.

Q.—Did the United States protest against the war-zone decree?

A.—On February 10, 1915, the Department of State sent a note to the German Government through Ambassador Gerard, calling attention to the serious possibilities inherent in this course of action, and added: "It is, of course, not necessary to remind the German Government that the sole right of a belligerent in dealing with neutral vessels on the high seas is limited to visit and search, unless a blockade is proclaimed and effectively maintained, which this government does not understand to be proposed in this case. To declare or exercise a right to attack and destroy any vessel entering a prescribed area of the high seas without first certainly determining its belligerent nationality and the contraband nature of its cargo would be an act so unprecedented in naval warfare that this government is reluctant to believe that the Imperial Government of Germany in this case contemplates it as possible." It was this note which stated that "the Government of the United States would be constrained to hold the Imperial German Government to a strict accountability . . . and to take any steps it might be necessary to take to safeguard American lives and property and to secure to American citizens the full enjoyment of their acknowledged right on the high seas."

Q.—Is there international warrant for declaring specified sea-areas as war-zones?

A.—Our government held that there was no settled principle of international law to justify the practice. Its attitude was defined as follows: "As the question of appropriating certain portions of the high seas, to the exclusion of the use of the hostile area as a common highway of commerce, has not become a settled principle of international law assented to by the family of nations, it will be recognized that the Government of the United States must, and hereby does, reserve generally all its rights in the premises, including the right not only to question the validity of these measures, but to present demands and claims in relation to any American interests which may be unlawfully affected, directly or indirectly, by virtue of the enforcement of these measures." Note Department of State, February 19, 1917, to the British Ambassador.

Q.—What would have been the effect of recognizing the war-zone decree?

A.—The Committee on Public Information in "Our War for Self-Defense," (War Information Series No. 5) says: "Our ships might indeed have stayed away from the ocean area over which the German Government thus asserted exclusive sovereignty. Their crews and passengers might have remained at home in obedience to the kaiser's command. In obedience to that command our Government might have ordered them to do so. But none of this would have been any safer to our independence, any more in the interest of peace between this country and Germany, or any more reasonable on any count, than if the Kaiser

had ordered us to stay off all the ocean outside our own territorial waters, and we had obeyed.

"If the United States ought, in conscience or from policies of peace, to have yielded to the Kaiser's extension of his invasive battle line out upon the ocean to the twentieth meridian in our direction, we should have had no reason in conscience or peace policy for forcibly resisting its extension at the Kaiser's command to the thirtieth degree, nor to the sixtieth, nor even to the very 3-mile limit off our own coast line. There is no argument in opposition to our war against the German Kaiser as a war of self-defense which would not be as reasonable if, in his lust of world conquest, he were immediately approaching our water frontiers across the ocean, as almost three years ago, obsessed with that lust, he approached the land frontiers of France across Belgium."

Q.—Were efforts made by America to establish a compromise on sea warfare?

A.—Yes. Ten days after the war-zone decree (on February 20, 1915), the American Government sent an identical note to Great Britain and Germany, proposing reciprocal concessions. The belligerents were to agree mutually: (1) not to sow floating mines; (2) not to plant anchored mines except within cannon range of harbors for defensive purposes only; (3) all mines to bear the stamp of the government owning them and to be so constructed as to become harmless if separated from their moorings; (4) submarines not to attack merchant vessels except to enforce the right of visit and search; (5) neutral flags not to be used. The most important part of the American suggestion, however, was one proposing a compromise on food shipments. The belligerents were not willing to accept the terms and the matter was dropped.

Q.—Who was the first American killed by submarine warfare?

A.—Leon C. Thresher, who was on the British steamship *Falaba,* which was torpedoed March 25, 1915, with a loss altogether of more than 100. The *Falaba* had at first attempted flight, after being ordered to heave to, but she had come to a stop when the torpedo was launched. The German Government claimed that the ship had delayed lowering her lifeboats while she signalled for assistance. The United States claimed in answer that only forcible resistance or continued efforts to escape could be held to serve as legitimate cause for endangering civilian lives on a merchant ship.

Q.—Did the "Falaba" case occur before the "Lusitania" sinking?

A.—It occurred a little over five weeks before the *Lusitania* sinking. For that reason it dropped measurably from public sight in the sense that the discussion over it became merged with the greater and more serious public and diplomatic discussion of the *Lusitania* case.

Q.—What American ships suffered in the war-zone?

A.—The first American ships to suffer in European waters after the war-zone decree were the steamships *Evelyn* (February 22), *Carib* (February 22), *Greenbrier* (April 2). These early cases caused some excitement in America until investigation disclosed that the vessels, while bound for German ports with cotton and similar cargoes, had run on mines, apparently as the consequence of accident. Four lives were lost, three being Spanish sailors and one American.

Q.—When was the first American ship torpedoed?

A.—On May 1, the American steamship *Gulflight,* bound for Rouen, France, when 25 miles off Bishops Rock, England, was picked up by two British patrol boats at 11 a.m., and directed to follow them toward the lighthouse. At 12.50 p.m., a heavy explosion occurred on the starboard side, half an hour after a submarine had been seen about two miles off. The wireless operator and a sailor jumped overboard and were drowned. The others were taken aboard the patrol boat where the captain died from heart failure. The vessel was towed into port.

Q.—When was the "Lusitania" torpedoed?

A.—On May 7, 1915, within three months after the German war-zone decree went into effect. She was sunk near the Irish coast without warning. Of the 1,154 lives that were lost, 114 were American.

Q.—What did America do after the "Lusitania" sinking?

A.—Six days after the sinking, the government demanded (under date of May 13, 1915) that the German Government disavow the acts of the submarine commanders who had sunk the British ships *Lusitania* and *Falaba* with Americans on board, the American ship *Gulflight* and also the aeroplane attack on the American ship *Cushing*. Further demands were for "reparation so far as reparation is possible for injuries which are without measure," and that the German Government "take immediate steps to prevent the recurrence of anything so obviously subversive of the principles of warfare for which the German Imperial Government have in the past so wisely and so firmly contended."

Q.—What did we announce as our intention?

A.—We declared, "The Imperial German Government will not expect the Government of the United States to omit any word or any act necessary to the performance of its sacred duty of maintaining the rights of the United States and its citizens and of safeguarding their free exercise and enjoyment."

Q.—Did Germany torpedo American ships after the "Lusitania" sinking?

A.—On May 25, 1915, the *Nebraskan* was torpedoed, but reached an English port. There were no deaths. Three sailors were injured. The German Government admitted the torpedoing, ascribed it to error and offered compensation. In the same note compensation was offered for the *Gulflight*. On July 25 the *Leelanaw*, returning from Archangel with flax for Belfast, Ireland, was stopped by a submarine off the Orkneys and after an examination of her papers the crew was ordered to leave the ship, which was then torpedoed. On August 19 followed the torpedoing of the White Star steamship *Arabic*, bound from Liverpool to New York with passengers, twenty of whom were drowned, among them being American citizens. Germany made elaborate explanations in this case, sending to the United States the affidavits of the submarine's officers and crew to the effect that they believed the *Arabic* had approached deliberately to ram them; but the German Government also admitted that it had no reason to doubt the affidavits of the *Arabic's* officers to the contrary. The case closed by the United States Government's acceptance of a disavowal and an offer to pay indemnity.

Q.—What was the result of the "Arabic" case?

A.—The German Ambassador at Washington (von Bernstorff) gave the American Government a formal declaration on September 1, 1915, that thereafter no liners would be sunk without warning. There was a considerable easing of strain, further accentuated when on October 6 the German Government, through Bernstorff, declared to the American Government that its orders to submarines had been made so stringent that a recurrence of incidents similar to the *Arabic* case was considered out of the question. On November 9, however, the whole matter was re-opened and assumed a most angry aspect through the sinking of the *Ancona*.

Q.—Was the "Ancona" an American ship?

A.—The *Ancona* was an Italian passenger steamship bound from Naples via Messina to New York. She carried 4 first-class, 63 second-class, and 194 third-class passengers bound for America. Among them were a number of naturalized American citizens. The *Ancona* was shelled until she stopped. Many were hurt and killed by this gunfire. Many others were drowned through the capsizing of boats that were lowered while under way. Before all the passengers could get off, the submarine, which turned out to be an Austrian one, torpedoed and sank the ship. The American Government denounced the act in a note to the Austrian Government as "wanton slaughter of defenseless non-combatants," and demanded that the Austrian Government confess that it was an illegal and indefensible act, that the commanding officer be punished, and that indemnity be paid. The Austrian Government made very halting explanations, but finally announced that it had punished the commander and would pay indemnity, though the admissions were made in a manner that left them very unsatisfactory.

Q.—Did the United States again propose rules for submarine war?

A.—On January 18, 1916, the State De-

partment sent an "informal and confidential letter" to the British, French, Russian, and Italian Ambassadors and the Belgian Minister, and on January 24 to the Japanese Ambassador, proposing these rules: (1) A noncombatant has the right to traverse the high seas in a merchant vessel entitled to fly a belligerent flag, and to rely upon the observance of international law and humanity if the vessel is approached by a naval vessel of another belligerent; (2) a merchant vessel of enemy nationality should not be attacked without being ordered to stop; (3) an enemy merchant vessel, when ordered to do so by a belligerent submarine, should immediately stop; (4) such vessel should not be attacked after being ordered to stop unless it attempts to flee or to resist, and in case it ceases to flee or resist, the attack should discontinue; (5) in the event that it is impossible to place a prize crew on board of an enemy merchant vessel or convoy it into port, the vessel may be sunk, provided the crew and passengers have been removed to a place of safety.

Q.—Was this proposal accepted by the belligerents?

A.—No. To the five proposals the United States in this note added the suggestion that the entrance of the submarine had put a new aspect on the practice of arming merchant vessels for defense. It said that owing to the weakness of the submarine, "the placing of guns on merchantmen at the present day can be explained only on the ground of purpose to render merchantmen superior in force to submarines and to prevent warning and visit and search by them. Any armament, therefore, on a merchant vessel would seem to have the character of an offensive armament." The Secretary of State added: "My Government is impressed with the reasonableness of the argument that a merchant vessel carrying an armament of any sort, in view of the character of submarine warfare and the defensive weakness of the undersea craft, should be held to be an auxiliary cruiser, and so treated by a neutral as well as by a belligerent government, and is seriously considering instructing its officials accordingly." This view was opposed by a British note of March 23, 1916, and on April 7, 1916, the State Department withdrew its suggestion.

Q.—When was the McLemore resolution introduced?

A.—In the spring of 1916. It was a resolution (not a statute) offered by Jeff McLemore, Congressman at large from Texas, warning American citizens not to travel on foreign armed merchant vessels. The President informed Congress that he objected seriously to the passage of the resolution, holding that neutral subjects had the right to travel on a belligerent merchant vessel, even though defensively armed. After acute debate and following swift parliamentary maneuvering, a proposition to table the resolution was successful, and it was tabled by a vote of 276 to 152.

Q.—When was the "Sussex" torpedoed?

A.—The *Sussex*, a British Channel steamer with Americans on board, was torpedoed in the Channel on March 24, 1916. About 80 passengers, including Americans, were killed or injured. Germany at first claimed that the submarine commander had sunk a warship at the place indicated (about midway between Folkestone and Dieppe). On April 18, 1916, the United States stated that the evidence was conclusive, and that "the commanders of the Imperial Government's undersea vessels have carried on practices of such ruthless destruction which have made it more and more evident that the Imperial Government has found it impracticable to put any such restraints on them as it had hoped and promised to put. . . . The roll of Americans who have lost their lives upon ships thus attacked and destroyed has grown month by month until the ominous toll has mounted into the hundreds."

Q.—Did the United States threaten war because of the "Sussex"?

A.—The Washington Government concluded its solemn protest by saying: "If it is still the purpose of the Imperial Government to prosecute relentless and indiscriminate warfare against vessels of commerce by the use of submarines without regard to what the Government of the United States must consider as the sacred and indisputable rules of international law and the universally recognized dictates of humanity, the Government of the United States is at last forced to the conclusion that there is but one course it can pursue. Unless the Imperial Government should now immediately declare and effect an abandonment of its present methods of submarine warfare against passen-

ger and freight-carrying vessels, the Government of the United States can have no choice but to sever diplomatic relations with the German Empire altogether. This action the Government of the United States contemplates with the greatest reluctance, but feels constrained to take in behalf of humanity and the rights of neutral nations."

Q.—Did Germany change its attitude as a result of the "Sussex" protest?

A.—On May 4, 1916, the German Government sent a long answer repeating its charges of previous violations of international laws by its enemies, but making the statement that the German naval forces had received the order: "In accordance with the general principles of visit and search and destruction of merchant vessels recognized by international law, such vessels, both within and without the area declared as naval war-zone, shall not be sunk without warning and without saving human lives, unless these ships attempt to escape or offer resistance."

Q.—Was the pledge unconditional?

A.—No. The note stated that Germany was confident that in consequence of the new orders, the United States "will now consider all impediments removed which may have been in the way of a mutual co-operation towards the restoration of the freedom of the seas . . . and it does not doubt that the Government of the United States will now demand that the British Government shall forthwith observe the rules of international law as they are laid down in the notes presented by the Government of the United States to the British Government on December 28, 1914, and November 5, 1915. Should the steps taken by the Government of the United States not attain the object, the German Government would then be facing a new situation, in which it must reserve itself complete liberty of action."

Q.—Did the United States accept this condition?

A.—No. On May 8, 1916, the Department of State responded, saying that the United States would "rely upon a scrupulous execution henceforth of the now altered policy of the Imperial Government, such as will remove the principal danger to an interruption of the good relations existing between the United States and Germany. The Government of the United States feels it necessary to state that it takes it for granted that the Imperial German Government does not intend to imply that the maintenance of its newly announced policy is in any way contingent upon the course or result of diplomatic negotiations between the United States and any other belligerent government. In order to avoid any possible misunderstanding, the Government of the United States notifies the Imperial Government that it cannot for a moment entertain, much less, discuss, a suggestion that respect by German naval authorities for the rights of citizens upon the high seas should in any way or in the slightest degree be made contingent upon the conduct of any other government affecting the rights of neutrals and noncombatants."

Q.—What famous phrase did the United States use?

A.—At the conclusion of the note the United States used the phrase: "Responsibility in such matters is single, not joint; absolute, not relative."

Q.—Did the German Government reply to this American note?

A.—No. Germany apparently pursued the policy of "standing pat" on its note, and the United States did the same.

Q.—What were the American notes referred to by Germany?

A.—The American note of December 28, 1914 (dated December 26), protested against the British seizures.

Americans have long been thinking more of the superb record made by the people and armies of Great Britain than of any former differences.

The reason for referring to this is that the Germans, and German sympathizers, have repeatedly tried to excuse their own illegal acts by classing them as at worst in the some category as those of the Allies.

Let us make the matter perfectly clear.

It is probably true that Great Britain was forced to adopt an extreme interpretation as to contraband and "continuous voyage"—just as the North did in the American Civil War; and impartial historians of the future may decide that this wrought some injury to property rights of neutrals.

But even admitting this, such acts are a whole world apart from the savage wholesale destruction of life and property deliberately adopted by the German government as a war measure.

Two gentlemen might easily disagree as to their rights and appeal to law—without being classed with the ruffian who tried to murder a roomful of innocent people in order to reach his enemy.

Q.—How many American lives had been destroyed by submarine warfare up to the time of our entrance into war?

A.—In all 226 American citizens, men, women and children, had lost their lives through the action of German submarines. Among the cases were: *Lusitania,* 114 Americans; *Arabic,* 3; *Hesperian,* 1; *Marina,* 8; *Russian,* 17; *Laconia,* 8; *Vigilancia,* 5; *Healdton,* 7; *Aztec,* 28. Of these ships the *Vigilancia, Healdton* and *Aztec* were American vessels.

Q.—Why did the United States dismiss the Austro-Hungarian ambassador?

A.—The United States demanded that the Austro-Hungarian Government recall its Ambassador, Constantin Dumba, because he had "admitted that he proposed to his Government plans to instigate strikes in American manufacturing plants engaged in the production of munitions of war." He had sent a letter to his government through an American citizen, traveling under an American passport, whose papers were seized by the British. The demand for his recall was made September 8, 1915, and was acceded to by his government September 30.

Q.—Did we refuse to receive an Austrian ambassador before we entered war with Germany?

A.—Yes. After the first Ambassador, Dr. Dumba, received his passports, Austria was represented in Washington for some time by minor legation officials. Diplomatic relations, however, had not been broken, and our Ambassador to Vienna, Penfield, remained accredited to that court. After some time, Austria-Hungary appointed a new Ambassador to the United States, but he was not received because the Austro-Hungarian Government had avowed its unqualified endorsement and acceptance of the German unrestricted submarine warfare decree.

Q.—Who severed diplomatic relations—we or Austria-Hungary?

A.—On April 8, 1917, Joseph Clark Grew, Chargé d'Affaires of the United States at Vienna in the absence of Ambassador Penfield, informed Washington that the Austrian Minister for Foreign Affairs had just notified him that diplomatic relations were broken and had given him his passports. The ground given by the Austrian Government was the existence of war between its ally, Germany, and the United States.

Q.—Was the German ambassador recalled by his Government?

A.—No. The German Ambassador, J. von Bernstorff, remained accredited to this country until February 3, 1917, when the United States severed diplomatic relations with Germany, and gave him his passports.

Q.—When did the United States dismiss members of his legation?

A.—On December 4, 1915, the government informed Ambassador Bernstorff that "various facts and circumstances having come to the knowledge of the Government of the United States as to the connection of Captain Boy-Ed, Naval attaché, and Captain von Papen, Military Attaché, of the Imperial German Embassy, with the illegal and questionable acts of certain persons within the United States, the President reached the conviction that the continued presence of these gentlemen as Attachés of the Embassy would no longer serve the purpose of their mission, and would be unacceptable to this Government." On December 10 the German Ambassador replied that his government had recalled them, and they sailed soon afterward.

Q.—When was the first important peace proposal made by any belligerent?

A.—In a note to the United States from Berlin dated December 12, 1916, and signed von Bethman-Hollweg (the German Imperial Chancellor). This note, after pointing to the strength and mili-

tary position of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey, stated: "They do not seek to crush or annihilate their adversaries. Conscious of their military and economic strength, and ready to carry on the end, if they must, the four Allied Powers propose to enter even now into peace negotiations," and asked the United States Government to transmit the offer to the Allied Governments. Identical notes were sent by Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey.

Q.—Did the notes indicate any specific peace aims?

A.—No. The only indication of their purposes was in the following sentence: "They" (i.e., the Central Allies) "feel sure that the propositions which they would bring forward and which would aim to assure the existence, honor and free development of their peoples, would be such as to serve as a basis for the restoration of a lasting peace. . . . If notwithstanding this offer of peace and conciliation, the struggle should continue, the four Allied Powers are resolved to carry it on to a victorious end while solemnly disclaiming any responsibility before mankind and history."

Q.—What was the military situation when this proposal was made?

A—On December 12, 1916, when these peace notes issued from the various Centra[1] capitals, the military situation on the Western Front was a deadlock. The German assault on the Verdun sector, begun on February of 1916, had ceased by July with little advantage in position. The Germans had gained ground, but had paid heavily in lives, and they had wholly failed to reduce Verdun itself. The British and French farther west had conducted a series of very large offensives from July to November, with an equal failure to do more than gain some ground, and with equally heavy losses. On the Eastern Front Russia was disintegrating. The Germans had proclaimed a new kingdom of Poland five weeks before they made peace proposals and they had practically completed the conquest of Roumania, having occupied the capital, Bucharest, just six days before the date of their note.

Q.—Had the United States not intended to make representations to the belligerents?

A.—Yes. It was generally known that the government was considering the issuance of a note to all the belligerents, suggesting an attempt to discuss peace terms or at least to indicate what terms would be likely to offer grounds for discussion.

Q.—Did the United States state this fact officially?

A.—The Department of State, in sending out the Central Powers' proposal to the various Embassies, stated that the Government "will itself presently have certain very earnest representations to make on behalf of the manifest interests of neutral nations and of humanity itself, to which it will ask that very serious consideration be given. It does not make their representations now, because it does not wish to connect them with the proposed overtures, or have them construed in any way as an attempt at mediation, notwithstanding that these overtures afford an admirable occasion for their consideration. The Government of the United States had in mind to make them entirely on its own initiative, and before it had any knowledge of the present attitude or suggestions of the Central Governments."

Q.—Did the Allied Governments reply to the German peace proposal?

A.—Under date of "Paris, December 29, 1916," and transmitted through Ambassador Sharp to Washington, the Governments of Belgium, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Montenegro, Portugal, Roumania, Russia and Serbia answered in a joint note.

Q.—What was the tenor of the Allied reply?

A.—It began with a protest against "the two essential assertions which attempt to throw upon the Allies the responsibility for the war and which proclaim the victory of the Central Powers . . . an assertion which is sufficient to render barren any attempt at negotiation." After recapitulating European history leading to the war, and pointing out that German

offers were based on a "war map," which expressed not the real strength of the opposing forces, the statement was made: "For the future, the ruins caused by the Germans' declaration of war, the innumerable agressions committed by Germany and her allies against belligerents and neutrals, demand penalties, reparations, and guarantees; Germany eludes one and all."

Q.—Did the Allied reply decline negotiations positively?

A.—Quite positively, in the following words: "It is with a full realization of the gravity, but also the necessities, of this hour that the Allied Governments, closely united and in perfect communion with their peoples refuse to entertain a proposal without sincerity and without import."

Q.—Did the Allies indicate what terms were demanded?

A.—Their joint note said: "They" (i.e., the Allied Powers) "affirm once again that no peace is possible as long as the reparation of violated rights and liberties, the acknowledgment of the principle of nationalities and of the free existence of small states shall not be assured; as long as there is no assurance of a settlement to suppress definitely the causes which for so long a time have menaced nations and to give the only efficacious guarantees for the security of the world." No territory or nation was mentioned specifically, except Belgium. After narrating Belgium's specific wrongs, they said: "They will only consider a peace which Belgian citizens believe assures to their country legitimate reparation, guarantees and security for their future."

Q.—Had the United States made its independent suggestion to the belligerents before this reply was issued?

A.—On December 18, 1916, the Department of State had sent to all the belligerents a note which, after making it absolutely clear that it had in no sense been suggested by the action of the Central Powers, said: "The President suggests that an early occasion be sought to call out from all the nations now at war such an avowal of their respective views as to the terms upon which the war might be concluded and the arrangements which would be deemed satisfactory as a guaranty against its renewal or the kindling of any similar conflict in the future, as would make it possible frankly to compare them."

Q.—What was the purpose of this note?

A.—The statement regarding it in "How the War Came to America" (Committee on Public Information) is:

"There was still hope in our minds that the mutual suspicions between the warring powers might be decreased, and the menace of future German aggression and dominance be removed, by finding a guaranty of good faith in a League of Nations. There was a chance that by the creation of such a league as part of the peace negotiations, the war could now be brought to an end before our Nation was involved."

Q.—Did the American note present a possible basis of agreement?

A.—It did. It said that the President "takes the liberty of calling attention to the fact that the objects which the statesmen of the belligerents on both sides have in mind in this war are virtually the same, as stated in general terms to their own people and to the world. Each side desires to make the rights and privileges of weak peoples and small states as secure against aggression or denial in the future as the rights and privileges of the great and powerful states now at war. Each wishes itself to be made secure in the future, along with all other nations and peoples, against the recurrence of wars like this and against aggression or selfish interference of any kind. Each would be jealous of the formation of any more rival leagues to preserve an uncertain balance of power amidst multiplying suspicions; but each is ready to consider the formation of a league of nations to insure peace and justice throughout the world."

Q.—Did the President inquire for specific peace terms?

A.—Yes. He said: "The concrete objects for which it (war) is being waged, have never been definitively stated. . . . Never yet have the authoritative spokesmen of either side avowed the precise objects which would, if attained, satisfy

them and their people that the war had been fought out. The world has been left to conjecture what definitive results, what actual exchange of guarantees, what political or territorial changes or readjustments, what stage of military success even, would bring the war to an end. It may be that peace is nearer than we know; that the terms which the belligerents would deem it necessary to insist upon are not so irreconciliable as some have feared; that an interchange of views would clear the way at least to a conference and make the permanent concord of the nations a hope of the immediate future, a concert of nations immediately practicable."

Q.—Did the American note propose mediation?

A.—It said: "The President is not proposing peace; he is not even proposing mediation. He is merely proposing that soundings be taken in order that we may learn how near the haven of peace may be for which all mankind longs with an intense and increased longing."

Q.—Which belligerent made the first reply?

A.—The Central Powers. A note dated December 26, 1916, was dispatched from Berlin, saying that the Imperial Government "has accepted and considered in the friendly spirit which is apparent in the communication of the President, the noble initiative looking to the creation of bases for the foundation of a lasting peace. A direct exchange of views appears to the Imperial Government the most suitable way of arriving at the desired result. The Imperial Government has the honor, therefore, to propose the speedy assembly, on neutral ground, of delegates of the warring States." Austria-Hungary and Turkey made the same reply, same date. Bulgaria replied in the same sense on December 30, 1916.

Q.—Was this reply at all satisfactory?

A.—"The German reply was evasive—in accordance with their traditional preference for diplomacy behind closed doors," says the Committee on Public Information in "How the War Came to America." "Refusing to state to the world their terms, Germany and her allies merely proposed a conference. They adjourned all discussion of any plan for a league of peace until after hostilities should end."

Q.—When did the Allied Powers reply?

A.—They replied with a joint note dated from Paris, January 10, 1917. Thus their reply was not only a reply to the President's note, but it was also a reply to the Central Powers' reply to that note. On the same date Belgium made a separate, or rather additional reply, restating her own grievous case most eloquently and declaring that she must have "equitable reparation, security and guarantees for the future."

Q.—Did the Allied note decline a conference?

A.—It did in a sentence which read: "But a discussion of future arrangements destined to insure an enduring peace presupposes a satisfactory settlement of the actual conflict. . . . They believe it is impossible at the present moment to attain a peace which will assure them reparation, restitution, and such guarantees to which they are entitled." They protested against "the assimilation established in the American note between the two groups of belligerents."

Q.—What specific terms did the Allied note declare?

A.—After declaring that their objects had been formulated many times by their Governments and were well known, they said that their objects (presumably meaning the detailed objects) "will not be made known in detail with all the equitable compensations and indemnities for damages suffered until the hour of negotiations. But the civilized world knows that they imply in all necessity and in the first instance the restoration of Belgium, of Serbia and of Montenegro and the indemnities which are due them; the evacuation of the invaded territories of France, of Russia and of Roumania with just reparation; the reorganization of Europe, guaranteed by a stable régime and founded as much upon respect of nationalities and full security and liberty, economic development, which all nations great and small possess, as upon territorial conventions and international agreements suitable to guarantee territorial and

maritime frontiers against unjustified attacks; the restitution of provinces or territories wrested in the past from the Allies by force or against the will of their populations, the liberation of Italians, of Slavs, of Roumanians and of Czecho-Slovaks from foreign domination; the enfranchisement of populations subject to the bloody tyranny of the Turks; the expulsion of the Ottoman Empire from Europe. The intentions of His Majesty the Emperor of Russia regarding Poland have been clearly indicated in the proclamation which he has just addressed to his armies."

Q.—What was American opinion after this interchange?

A.—It is expressed in the following, from "How the War Came to America," quoted previously:

"The response of the Entente Powers was frank and in harmony with our principal purpose. Many questions raised in the statement of their aims were so purely European in character as to have small interest for us; but our great concern in Europe was the lasting restoration of peace, and it was clear that this was also the chief interest of the Entente Nations. As to the wisdom of some of the measures they proposed toward this end, we might differ in opinion, but the trend of their proposals was the establishment of just frontiers based on the rights of all nations, the small as well as the great, to decide their own destinies.

"The aims of the belligerents were now becoming clear. From the outbreak of hostilities the German Government had claimed that it was fighting a war of defense. But the tone of its recent proposals had been that of a conqueror. It sought a peace based on victory. The central empires aspired to extend their domination over other races. They were willing to make liberal terms to any one of their enemies, in a separate peace which would free their hands to crush other opponents. But they were not willing to accept any peace which did not, all fronts considered, leave them victors and the dominating imperial power of Europe. The war aims of the Entente showed a determination to thwart this ambition of the Imperial German Government. Against the German Peace to further German growth and aggression the Entente Powers offered a plan for a European Peace that should make the whole Continent secure."

Q.—Had the treaties concerning any of these settlements been published at the time of this interchange of notes?

A.—No. They were not made public until after the overthrow of the Czar's Government and the subsequent overthrow of the Kerensky Government. Soon after the Russian Revolution the extreme socialists had demanded publication of treaties, but the Kerensky Government failed to accede. When the Bolshevik Government succeeded Kerensky in November, 1917, the treaties were published in full, with a statement by Trotzky that secret diplomacy was one of the evils which the new régime intended to eliminate. Trotzky added: "The bourgeois politicians and scribblers of Austria-Hungary and Germany may attempt to make use of the published documents to present in a favorable light the diplomatic efforts of the Central Empires. But any attempt in this direction will be doomed to complete and sorry failure. Firstly, we intend to produce shortly before the judgment of public opinion the secret documents which characterize quite sharply the diplomacy of the Central Empires; and secondly—and this is of greater importance—the methods of secret diplomacy are just as international as is imperialistic rapacity itself."

Q.—What was the most important of these treaties?

A.—Perhaps it was the treaty between Italy and France, Great Britain and Russia, signed about a fortnight before Italy entered the war (against Austria-Hungary alone, May 23, 1915). This treaty after setting forth the military efforts to be made by Italy, provided that Italy was to receive: the Trentino district; entire southern Tyrol to the river Brenner; Trieste, Goritzia, Gradisca and their suburbs; all of Istria and Dalmatia (the coastal lands on the Eastern Adriatic opposite Italy) and various enumerated island archipelagoes on that coast; the right to conduct the foreign relations of Albania, in case that country were erected into a small autonomous neutralized State; on the division of Turkey, an equal share with France, Great Britain and Russia in the basin of the Mediterranean and especially contiguous to Adalia (a coastal strip in Asiatic Turkey facing the Mediterranean between Crete and Cyprus); all rights acquired by the Sultan in Libya

(the northern part of Egypt on the Mediterranean lying between the Nile and Tripoli on the west); in the event of expansion of French and English colonial domains at the expense of Germany, Italy to have the right to demand compensations in the shape of expansions of her lands in Erithea (on the African Red Sea coast north of Abyssinia), Somaliland (on the Indian Ocean just south of the Gulf of Aden), Libya, and colonial districts lying on the boundary with the colonies of France and Great Britain; such share of the military contribution as corresponds with the sacrifices made; non-admittance of the Holy See to diplomatic steps for conclusion of peace or regulation of questions arising from the war.

Q.—What were the other treaties?

A.—One was an agreement (dated February 1-14, 1917) by which France was to include in her terms of peace the following: (1) Alsace and Lorraine to be re-returned; (2) boundaries to be extended to at least the limits of the former principality of Lorraine and fixed under direction of the French Government; (3) whole of the industrial iron basin of Lorraine and whole of industrial coal-basin of Valley of the Saar (between Lorraine, the Palatinate and the River Moselle; (4) other territories on the left bank of the Rhine and not included in the composition of the German Empire to be completely separated from Germany and freed from all political and economic dependence on her; (5) the territory on the left bank of the Rhine not included in the composition of French territory to form an autonomous and neutral government, and to be occupied by French armies till the enemy government completely fulfills all the conditions and guarantees in the treaty of peace. The other treaties and agreements concerned Russia's freedom to fix her Western boundaries and her right to take Constantinople, western shores of the Bosphorus, Sea of Marmora, and the Dardanelles, shores of Asia Minor and certain islands to go to Russia; the special rights of France and of Great Britain within those territories to remain undisturbed. There were other agreements concerning territorial offers to Roumania and Greece which lost their importance after the peace treaty between Roumania and the Central Powers and the change of government in Greece.

Q.—What was the "Willy and Nicky" correspondence?

A.—It was a series of letters and dispatches between Emperor William and the late Czar, dating between 1904 and 1907, and so-called because the two monarchs addressed each other with those names. The Provisional Government of Russia made them public. They dealt with efforts to rescue the autocratic Russian Government from the critical political condition into which it had sunk as a result of the Russo-Japanese War; and with other efforts toward a Russo-German alliance against Great Britain and a severance of the Russo-French alliance. An interesting part of the letters was a reference to the probable necessity of Russo-German occupation of Denmark if the Baltic Sea were menaced by attack from other Powers in case of war.

Q.—Was it at this time that President Wilson uttered his famous statement about secret diplomacy?

A.—No. This great utterance, which was recognized throughout the world as going boldly and straight to the root of the evil intrigues which did more than anything else to maintain the menace of wars in the world, was in his Message to Congress on the basis of a possible world-peace, January 8, 1918. He there laid down certain world-principles which must be adopted if international relations were to be on a better basis. The very first principle in that program was: "Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind, but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view."

Q.—Had the German Government intrigued secretly against America when it made its peace proposals?

A.—In the address by the President to a joint session of both houses of Congress, asking that Germany's course be declared war against the United States (April 2, 1917, less than 4 months after the German peace proposal was sent to the United States), the following statement was made:

"One of the things that has served to convince us that the Prussian autocracy was not and could never be our friend is that from the very outset of the present war it has filled our unsuspecting communities and even our offices of govern-

ment with spies and set criminal intrigues everywhere afoot against our national unity of counsel, our peace within and without, our industries and our commerce. Indeed, it is now evident that its spies were here even before war began; and it is unhappily not a matter of conjecture but a fact proved in our courts of justice that the intrigues which have come more than once perilously near to disturbing the peace and dislocating the industries of the country have been carried on at the instigation, with the support and even under the personal direction of official agents of the Imperial Government accredited to the Government of the United States."

Q.—Did we have evidence of these things?

A.—"The information . . . was drawn from a varied body of documentary material: telegrams from the German Government to its diplomatic representatives in the United States; letters and telegrams exchanged by them with their hired agents here; records of financial dealings, as checks, receipts, bank books, deposit slips, orders to bank that money be paid and acknowledgments thereof; reports of subordinates to superiors; hotel registers and lists of telephone calls. Of particular value are the counterfoils and stubs in the check book of Captain von Papen, on which he habitually recorded memoranda revealing the purpose for which the checks were drawn, and the cash book of Wolf von Igel, von Papen's secretary, with its daily record of persons to whom he made payments.

"Another rich mine of information has resulted from the legal prosecution of certain of her agents here for criminal acts. This evidence includes confessions by accused persons and their confederates to United States officials, examinations before Government officials, and testimony offered in the courts of law." (German Plots and Intrigues: Committee on Public Information.)

Q.—What had been the wrongful activities of Germany within the United States?

A.—When the House of Representatives Committee on Foreign Affairs brought in the War Resolution, it recorded formally the following: Organizing Hindu plots against Great Britain's Indian Empire; preparing fraudulent passports for German reservists; equipping agents with American passports to do espionage in England; outfitting ships to supply German warships on the high seas; attempt to blow up the international bridge between the United States and Canada; furnishing funds for men to destroy Canadian munition works; conspiring to blow up tunnels and bridges in Canada and to place bombs on board of ships leaving the United States; financing newspapers to conduct propaganda; seeking to embroil Mexico.

Q.—What were the Hindu plots?

A.—The German Government gave aid to members of the India Nationalist Party, which has long aimed to overthrow British rule in India by means of armed rebellion. In March, 1917, the Federal Grand Jury in San Francisco indicted the German Consul-General in that city, Franz Bopp, with his Vice-Consul, Eckhart H. von Schack; William von Brincken, Hans Tauscher, F. von Papen, German military attaché; George Rodiek (German Consul at Honolulu); Earnest Sekunna, Wolf von Igel, von Papen's secretary; Har Dayal, Ram Chandra, Bhagwan Singh, Chandra Kanta Chakrabarty, and Haramba Lal Gupta, "for feloniously conspiring to set on foot a military enterprise to be carried on from within the territory of the United States against India . . . the object and purpose being to initiate mutiny and armed rebellion in India and to overthrow the Government."

It was proved that large sums had been spent and that attempts had been made to ship quantities of arms to India. All those indicted were convicted in 1918, except one American of minor importance and two Hindus, one of whom killed the other and in turn was killed in the courtroom by a court official.

Another branch of the conspiracy in Chicago resulted in the conviction there of German agents and Indian revolutionists in October, 1917.

Q.—What were the attempts against Canada?

A.—Horst von der Goltz, by orders of the German General Staff and through direct aid from Captain von Papen, tried to engineer the destruction of the Welland Canal, grain elevators at Fort Wil-

liam, and if possible the Sault Ste-Marie locks and railroad bridges. Another attempt was made by Paul Koenig, head of the Bureau of Investigation of the Hamburg-American line, to hire men to blow up the Welland Canal. Albert Kaltschmidt, a wealthy citizen of the German Empire living in Detroit, organized attempts to blow up factories in Walkerville, Canada, the armory in Windsor, the Canadian Pacific Railroad bridges at Nipigon, and the St. Clair Tunnel connecting Canada and the United States. Kaltschmidt and his associates were indicted and found guilty in December, 1917. He was sentenced to 4 years in Leavenworth and to pay a fine of $20,000. His sister was sentenced to 3 years in the House of Correction and fined $15,000. Her husband, Fritz A. Neef, got 2 years at Leavenworth and was fined $10,000. Werner Horn, a German Reserve Lieutenant, under orders from Captain von Papen, partly blew up the Grand Trunk Railway Bridge near Vanceboro, Maine. He confessed and was sentenced to 18 months in Atlanta and $1,000 fine. Franz Bopp, German Consul-General in San Francisco, hired men to blow up the tunnels of the Canadian Pacific Railroad in British Columbia. Bopp, Vice-Consul von Schack, Lieutenant von Brincken, one Crowley and his Secretary, Mrs. Cornell, were found guilty and sentenced to various terms and fines.

Q.—Was the German Government's connection established?

A.—Yes, by the following intercepted telegrams sent in January, 1916, to Ambassador von Bernstorff:

Jan. 3. (Secret.) General Staff desires energetic action in regard to proposed destruction of Canadian Pacific Railway at several points with a view to complete and protracted interruption of traffic. Captain Boehm, who is known on your side and shortly returning, has been given instructions. Inform the Military Attaché and provide the necessary funds.

(Signed) ZIMMERMANN.

Jan. 26. For Military Attaché. You can obtain particulars as to persons suitable for carrying on sabotage in the United States and Canada from the following persons: (1) Joseph McGarrity, Philadelphia, Penn. (2) John P. Keating, Michigan Avenue, Chicago. (3) Jeremiah O'Leary, 16 Park Row, New York. One and two are absolutely reliable and discreet. No. 3 is reliable, but not always discreet. These persons were indicated by Sir Roger Casement. In the United States sabotage can be carried out on every kind of factory for supplying munitions of war. Railway embankments and bridges must not be touched. Embassy must in no circumstances be compromised. Similar precautions must be taken in regard to Irish pro-German propaganda.

(Signed)

REPRESENTATIVE OF GENERAL STAFF.

Q.—How did German agents try to destroy ships?

A.—By placing in their cargoes incendiary bombs which should explode after a certain time. Between 300 and 400 bombs were manufactured in New Jersey and fires were started on 33 ships sailing from New York. Dr. Walter T. Scheele, a chemist, Franz Rintelen, a noted German agent, Captain von Kleist, and nearly a dozen others were indicted and sent to prison for various terms with exception of some who fled. Robert Fay, a former German army officer, came to this country in 1915 and endeavored to fix ingeniously contrived bombs to the rudders of munition-laden ships to sink them at sea. He and two associates were sentenced to long terms in Atlanta. Consul-General Bopp was engaged in similar attempts on the Pacific Coast.

Q.—What did the President say about German attempts to embroil other nations against us?

A.—He said in his war message: "That it" (i.e., the German Government) "means to stir up enemies against us at our very doors the intercepted note to the German Minister at Mexico City is eloquent evidence."

Q.—What was this intercepted note?

A.—It was a note from the German Minister for Foreign Affairs, von Zimmermann, dated "Berlin, Jan. 19, 1917." and addressed to the German Minister in Mexico. Its wording was: "On February 1 we intend to begin submarine warfare unrestricted. In spite of this, it is our intention to keep neutral the United States. If this attempt is not successful, we propose an alliance on the following basis with Mexico: that we shall make war together and together make peace.

We shall give general financial support, and it is understood that Mexico shall reconquer the lost territory in New Mexico, Texas and Arizona." The German Minister was instructed to open negotiations with President Carranza the moment war was inevitable, and to suggest to Carranza that he draw Japan into the alliance. The note was intercepted by the United States and made public on March 1, 1917.

Q.—Who referred to a peace without victory?

A.—President Wilson used this famous term in an address to the United States Senate on January 22, 1917 (after his reelection) on essential terms of peace in Europe. It was after the German Government had made a peace-proposal and the Allies had replied. He referred to the statements by both sides that they had no intention of crushing their antagonists and said: "But the implications of these assurances may not be equally clear to all —may not be the same on both sides of the water. I think it will be serviceable if I set forth what I understand them to be. They imply, first of all, a peace without victory."

Q.—Did the President explain the meaning of "peace without victory"?

A.—He did. He said: "I beg that I may be permitted to put my own interpretation upon it and that it may be understood that no other interpretation was in my thought. Victory would mean peace forced upon the loser, a victor's terms imposed upon the vanquished. It would be accepted in humiliation, under duress, at an intolerable sacrifice, and would leave a sting, a resentment, a bitter memory upon which terms of peace would rest, not permanently, but only as upon quicksand. Only a peace between equals can last. Only a peace the very principle of which is equality and a common participation in a common benefit. The right state of mind, the right feeling between nations, is as necessary for a lasting peace as is the just settlement of vexed questions of territory or of racial and national allegiance."

Q.—What chief points did the special address on peace in Europe present?

A.—In this Special Address, made 2½ months before we entered war with Germany, the following were the points laid down as necessary for a sound peace: (1) an international concert which must thereafter hold the world at peace; (2) a peace to be made secure by the organized major force of mankind; (3) not a balance of power, but a community of powers; (4) peoples not to be handed from sovereignty to sovereignty as if they were property; (5) a united, independent, and autonomous Poland; (6) security of life, worship, industrial and social development for people under governments of faith and purpose hostile to their own; (7) direct access to the sea for all great peoples so far as possible; (8) freedom of the seas; (9) limitation of armaments on land and sea; (10) an adoption by all nations of the doctrine of President Monroe as the doctrine of the world: that no nation should seek to extend its polity over any other nation or people; (11) all nations to avoid entangling alliances.

Q.—Were specific war settlements suggested in this address?

A.—Yes. It was in these words: "No peace can last, or ought to last, which does not recognize and accept the principle that governments derive all their just powers from the consent of the governed, and that no right anywhere exists to hand peoples about from sovereignty to sovereignty as if they were property. I take it for granted, for instance, if I may venture upon a single example, that statesmen everywhere are agreed that there should be a united, independent and autonomous Poland, and that henceforth inviolable security of life, of worship, and of industrial and social development should be guaranteed to all peoples who have lived hitherto under the power of governments devoted to a faith and purpose hostile to their own."

Q.—What is the origin of "making the world safe for democracy"?

A.—This famous phrase was in the Executive Address to Congress advising that Germany's course be declared war against the United States. (Delivered to Congress in Joint Session, April 2, 1917.) The exact words were: "The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of national liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indem-

nities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them."

Q.—What is the meaning of "the battle line of democracy"?

A.—It is a characterization used by President Wilson in a letter addressed in September, 1917, to the "American Alliance of Labor and Democracy." Its exact wording was: "No one who is not blind can fail to see that the battle line of democracy for America stretches today from the fields of Flanders to every house and workshop where toiling, upward striving men and women are counting the treasures of right and justice and liberty, which are threatened by our present enemies."

Q.—Did America formally include limitation of armaments as part of peace settlements?

A.—In the address to Congress of January 22, 1917, the President's statement of the armament question was: "There can be no sense of safety and equality among nations if great preponderating armaments are henceforth to continue here and there to be built up and maintained. The statesmen of the world must plan for peace and nations must adjust and accommodate their policy to it as they have planned for war and made ready for pitiless contest and rivalry. The question of armaments, whether on land or sea, is the most immediately and intensely practical question connected with the future fortunes of nations and of mankind."

Q.—Do Governments communicate with each other through their rulers?

A.—No. Even though diplomatic notes may have been written directly by the heads of government, such as the President of the United States, the Prime Minister of England, the Premier of France, the Chancellor of Germany, etc., the communications are sent out signed by the Secretary of State for the United States, the British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and the Ministers for Foreign Affairs of other nations. They are addressed to the chiefs for foreign affairs and never to the head of a government directly. There have been a few rare exceptions during the war. On very special occasions that were not essentially matters of diplomacy, the King of England, the Premier of France, the Emperor of Germany, etc., have addressed the President of the United States directly during the war.

Q.—How were our diplomatic communications to belligerent Governments signed?

A.—They were signed "Bryan," and later "Lansing," in conformance with the international usage just described. All such communications are signed simply with the last name of the official in charge.

Q.—Did the President draft the communications that bore the signature of his secretaries of state?

A.—It is well known that not only did the President himself guide the foreign policies, and not only did the notes express his own views and decisions, but that many were written by him personally.

Q.—Who was Secretary of State when the European war began?

A.—William J. Bryan. He resigned on June 8, 1915, which was 1 year and 1 month (less a few days) after the European war had begun.

Q.—Was Bryan's successor Lansing appointed from private life?

A.—Robert Lansing was promoted from his office as Counselor for the Department of State, with which he had been connected in many varying capacities for about 22 years. His appointment was *ad interim* to June 23, 1915, on which date he was appointed formally and fully as Secretary of State.

Q.—Had a mercantile shipbuilding programme been planned before the war?

A.—Yes. Early in the course of the war, while it still was confined to Europe,

a bill was introduced in Congress to provide for a system under which the government could undertake the work of constructing a mercantile marine, and put the ships into active service, with a provision for withdrawing and letting private capital conduct the work under proper safeguards and control after the conditions became such that government financing and operation no longer were necessary. The bill was defeated and a second bill with some changes met the same fate.

Q.—What naval plans did we have before war?

A.—The full naval construction programme developed in 1915 was for a definite 5-year programme that should provide for a continuous construction schedule instead of building only from year to year. Under this programme, there were to be built or building by 1921 a navy of 27 first-line battleships (equal to foreign super-dreadnaughts), 6 battle-cruisers, 25 second-line battleships (dreadnaught types), 10 armored cruisers, 13 scout cruisers, 5 first-class cruisers (maximum swiftness, armoring and gunning), 3 second-class cruisers, 10 third-class cruisers, 108 destroyers, 18 fleet submarines (sea-going to accompany battle-fleets), 157 coast submarines, 6 monitors (coast-defense vessels), 20 gunboats (river work, station duty, etc.), 4 supply ships, 15 fuel ships, 4 transports, 3 tenders to torpedo vessels, 8 vessels of special types and 2 ammunition ships.

Q.—Was a large army proposed before war threatened?

A.—On November 4, 1915, an Administration programme for a large army establishment was made public through an address made by the President in the Manhattan Club, New York City. As described in detail, it contemplated only such an increase in the regular army as was necessary for the increased tasks laid on it by Hawaii, Porto Rico, the Philippines and the Texan border. The programme for a larger army was to call for training in the following three years of 400,000 citizen soldiers to be raised in annual contingents of 133,000. They were to be asked to enlist for three years with the colors and three years on furlough; but during their enlistment with the colors they were not to be organized as a standing force, but would be expected merely to undergo intensive training for a brief period each year. The National Guard was to be used as part of the instrumentality to provide this training, and it was to have enlarged financial support from the Federal Government and a more definite connection with the military organization of the whole nation.

Q.—Did Mexico propose a method for terminating the war after we joined it?

A.—Not after we entered, but after we had severed diplomatic relations with Germany. President Carranza sent a note to Washington, dated "Queretaro, February 11, 1917," suggesting that the warring nations be invited to bring the war to an end either by their own efforts or by availing themselves of the friendly mediation of neutrals, and proposing that if peace were not restored within a reasonable time, all neutrals refuse any kind of implements to the belligerents and suspend commercial relations with the warring nations.

Q.—What was the reply of the United States?

A.—Under date of March 16, 1917, the United States replied, referring to the American peace efforts made a few months before, and saying: "Of the futile results of the President's efforts at that time General Carranza is no doubt aware. Instead of the conflict being resolved into a discussion of terms of peace, the struggle, both on land and sea, has been renewed with intensified vigor and bitterness. To such an extent has one group of belligerents carried warfare on the high seas involving the destruction of American ships and the lives of American citizens, in contravention of the pledges heretofore solemnly given the Government of the United States, that it was deemed necessary within the past few weeks to sever relations with one of the Governments of the Allied Central Powers."

Q.—Did we refuse to consider the Mexican proposal?

A.—Yes. The American reply said: "To render the situation still more acute, the Government of the United States has unearthed a plot laid by the Government dominating the Central Powers to embroil not only the Government and people of Mexico, but also the Government and people of Japan, in war with the United

States. At the time this plot was conceived, the United States was at peace with the Government and people of the German Empire, and German officials and German subjects were not only enjoying but abusing the liberties and privileges freely accorded to them on American soil and under American protection. In these circumstances, all of which were in existence when the note under acknowledgment was received, the Government of the United States finds itself, greatly to its regret and contrary to its desires, in a position which precludes it from participating at the present time in the proposal of General Carranza that the neutral governments jointly extend an invitation to the belligerent governments countries to bring the war to an end." The proposal to cut off supplies was dismissed as being contrary to international law.

Q.—Did we intimate that further proposals would not be acceptable?

A.—No. The note was careful to state in its concluding passage: "The President would not be understood, however, as desiring to impede the progress of a movement leading to the resumption of peaceful relations between all the belligerents, and would not, therefore, wish the Mexican Government to feel that his inability to act in the present stage of affairs should in any way militate against the attainment of the high ideals of General Carranza by the co-operation of other neutral governments in the use of their good offices and friendly mediation to bring about the end of the terrible war which is being waged between the great powers of Europe."

Q.—What part did Mexico take in the war after the United States entered it?

A.—None at all. The Mexican Government declared that it proposed to observe strict neutrality. It was still in that position in August, 1918, when the European War had entered its fifth year.

Q.—What is neutrality?

A.—Neutrality is in simple language impartiality maintained by a nation during disputes or strife between other nations. In the meaning of international law this impartiality needs to be exercised only by the government officially. The citizens of a neutral country may express their opinions and sympathies, and the neutral nation cannot be held accountable, so long as the private citizens remain within their private rights and do nothing that should properly compel their government to take cognizance of them.

Q.—What is forbidden to a neutral nation's government?

A.—The neutral government may not express officially an opinion as to the justice of either side in a war. It may not extend to either side any privilege that it does not extend to the other. It must rigidly apply all laws and rulings equally to both belligerents. It must give each exactly the same rights, and what it denies it must deny equally to both. It may not permit its territory to be used as a military or naval base. It may not permit transport of belligerent military forces across its territory.

Q.—What is forbidden to a neutral nation's citizens?

A.—They may not within the territory or jurisdiction of the neutral government accept military or naval commissions to serve a belligerent or enlist in service or hire anybody else to do so. They may not hire anybody to go beyond the limit or jurisdiction of the neutral nation to enlist. They may not fit out and arm any vessel in any way to be employed by either belligerent and they may not augment, or aid in augmenting, the force of any ship of war of a belligerent within the waters of the neutral country, by adding to the number of guns, increasing their caliber or otherwise adding any equipment of war. They may not set on foot, or aid in setting on foot, any military enterprise to be carried on against any of the belligerents from the territory or jurisdiction of the neutral country.

Q.—How much refitting may a belligerent warship do in neutral waters?

A.—A belligerent vessel may not take on any warlike equipment at all in neutral waters. She may refit only to the extent of making her fit to continue her voyage, and then only to the utmost limit of actual necessity. If she needs repairs she may remain in the neutral harbor only for a sharply limited period and she may

not exceed the work of repairing to make it a work of refitting her beyond the actual necessity of repairs. She may take on only enough supplies and coal to enable her to reach the nearest port of her own country.

Q.—What is the rule if a belligerent warship enters a neutral harbor where there are ships of the other belligerent?

A.—The neutral nation is expected to see that the ship of one belligerent (whether it be merchant vessel or warship) shall leave twenty-four hours before the other belligerent is permitted to sail.

Q.—Does international law permit citizens of a neutral country to manufacture and sell munitions of war to belligerents?

A.—Absolutely. It is a right universally recognized and established.

Q.—May they ship them out of the country?

A.—The right to sell carries with it, as a matter of course, the right to ship. But the right to ship ceases at the limit of jurisdiction of the neutral country. The moment they pass that jurisdiction, the other belligerent may seize the munitions if he can. The principle is thus declared in the American neutrality proclamation: "While all persons may lawfully and without restriction manufacture and sell within the United States arms and munitions of war, and other articles known as contraband of war, yet they may not carry such articles on the high seas for the use of any belligerent, nor can they transport soldiers of a belligerent or attempt to break any blockade which may be lawfully established and maintained, without incurring the risk of hostile capture and the penalties denounced by the law of nations in that behalf."

Q.—May a neutral Government supply a belligerent with munitions?

A.—No. Such an act, officially performed, would be an act of war. There is a decided distinction in this regard between a government of a nation and the private citizen of a nation.

Q.—What is benevolent neutrality?

A.—It is not genuine neutrality, and, in fact, acts of "benevolent neutrality" could rarely stand a searching examination under application of impartial international law. Nations have often exercised this so-called benevolent neutrality, but the non-favored belligerent failed to protest only if he was so weak that he dared not object or retaliate. A nation attempting to exercise "benevolent neutrality" against one of two powerful belligerents takes the imminent risk of being made a party to the war and being attacked by the non-favored belligerent.

Q.—Did the Government ask the American people to abstain from passionate utterances of opinion during the war?

A.—Yes; but it was done as an appeal, and not as a ruling of law, or with any suggestion that any law governed it. It was an appeal by the President, which the Senate ordered printed August 19, 1914. Referring to the many varying racial strains in American citizenship, the appeal said: "Some will wish one nation, others another, to succeed in the momentous struggle. It will be easy to excite passion and difficult to allay it. Those responsible for exciting it will assume a heavy responsibility, responsibility for no less a thing than that the people of the United States, whose love of their country and whose loyalty to its government should unite them as Americans all, bound in honor and affection to think first of her and her interests, may be divided in camps of hostile opinion, hot against each other, involved in the war itself in impulse and opinion if not in action. . . . I venture, therefore, my fellow countrymen, to speak a solemn word of warning to you against that deepest, most subtle, most essential breach of neutrality which may spring out of partisanship, out of passionately taking sides. The United States must be impartial in fact as well as in name during these days that are to try men's souls."

Q.—May merchant vessels carry supplies to warships out of neutral ports?

A.—No. That is defined as making the neutral port in effect a base for the bel-

ligerent so supplied. The United States Government ordered its officials in March, 1915, to withhold clearance papers from any vessel, American or otherwise, which was suspected on reasonable cause of intending to deliver fuel, arms, ammunition, men or supplies to any warship of a belligerent nation. The penalty for trying to leave port without clearance was fixed at a fine of not less than $2,000 or more than $10,000 or imprisonment not to exceed two years, or both fine and imprisonment, with the forfeiture of the offending vessel.

Q.—What methods were used by German agents to clear ships illegally?

A.—False manifests—that is, papers stating false ports of destination, etc. High officials of the Hamburg-American line, among them Dr. Buenz, managing director, George Koetter, superintending engineer, Adolph Hachmeister, purchasing agent, and Joseph Pappinghaus were indicted in New York for conspiracy to defraud the United States and confessed that they had sent out twelve ships, proved by the Government to have fraudulent papers. All had been captured and interned before reaching their destination. Nine of the vessels were chartered, and the Hamburg-American Line paid the owners for their losses about $1,400,000. Captain Boy-Ed's account at a New York bank indicated that he had large sums for conducting Germany's naval operations from the United States, and that he reimbursed the Hamburg-American Line for this and other expenditures to an amount over $2,000,000. Buenz, Koetter and Hachmeister were sentenced in December, 1915, to 18 months in the Federal Penitentiary at Atlanta. Pappinghaus was sentenced to a year and a day. Similar means were used on the Pacific coast. Besides the men mentioned, more than 15 firms and individuals have been convicted.

Q.—How long did the German ship "Prinz Eitel Friedrich" hold the seas?

A.—She held the seas from the outbreak of hostilities until March 10, 1915, when she ran the cordon of Allied warships off the Chesapeake Bay and entered Hampton Roads. She had started from China, and during her cruise of seven months had captured a great many ships. She brought many captured crews of merchant vessels into port with her. The *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* was a passenger ship and was commissioned as a warship when war began.

Q.—Did the United States give her asylum?

A.—The United States gave her commander the safe refuge incumbent on neutral nations, and ordered naval experts to examine her and report on the length of time she might need for repairs. On March 18, 1915, the Navy Department found that she needed 14 days to make herself seaworthy enough to leave, and gave her until April 6 with an additional grace of 24 hours, or until midnight April 7. Before the expiration of that date, the ship appeared many times to be preparing to sail, and there was great interest in the news, because the Allied cordon had been heavily increased. However, in the end the vessel elected to remain and accept internment.

Q.—Did any regular German warships seek Hampton Roads for refuge?

A.—A month after the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* had entered, the regular cruiser *Kronprinz Wilhelm* made harbor after 8 months of cruising and very extensive captures and destructions of Allied merchant tonnage. She landed 61 members of captured merchant crews at Newport News, having transferred the rest at sea to captured prizes which she had sent into various ports. The American Government gave her from April 11 (the day she arrived) until April 30 to make repairs and leave. She was in much worse condition than the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich*, and there was, as a matter of fact, slight expectation that she would elect to run the enemy cordon, since the attempt was almost hopeless. She was interned at the end of the period of grace.

Q.—What was the status of the "Geier"?

A.—The *Geier* was a German gunboat cruising in the Pacific when war began. After holding the sea for some months, she entered Honolulu Harbor in October with her boilers and tubing in bad condition. A reasonable time was granted to make repairs, and this time was extended as the work progressed. During its continuation, a Japanese warship

appeared outside of the harbor and waited for the *Geier* to come out. A German merchant vessel, *Locksun*, also had made Honolulu Harbor with the *Geier*. On November 8, 1914, both vessels were interned, the *Geier* in regular course as a warship that could not leave the neutral harbor within a reasonable time, and the *Locksun* as being her tender, which she clearly was. During their stay, the British Ambassador made strong representations in Washington asking for immediate internment and the German Ambassador made equally strong protests against internment. The United States Government favored neither side and fairly fulfilled its duties as a neutral.

Q.—Did the Germans violate the terms of internment?

A.—The German officers pledged their word of honor to our Government not to escape from our jurisdiction, and accordingly were allowed every liberty. After some weeks, several officers of the *Kronprinz Wilhelm* purchased a yacht ostensibly for pleasure cruises, secretly stocked it with supplies and one night sailed away. They obtained the necessary funds for escape from the German Consul at Richmond, and Captain Boy-Ed filed a message at Sayville, asking Berlin for instructions for these officers. Paroled German officers at San Francisco and Guam also violated their oaths.

Q.—Is it permissible to change merchant vessels into warships?

A.—Yes. It is an unquestioned and universally practiced right of nations to convert merchant vessels carrying their flag into warships in their own ports at any time, whether in war or peace. There is not such unanimity of opinion as to the right to convert merchant ships into warships on the high seas. At the Second Hague Conference and at the London Naval Conference, Germany, Austria-Hungary, France and Russia upheld the right of nations to convert on the high seas. Great Britain and Belgium opposed it at the Hague Conference. Subsequently, at the London Conference, Belgium not participating, Great Britain maintained that attitude. It does not appear that any general practice has prevailed among nations to form a precedent. The question was left open by the nations at the two conferences.

Q.—Why was the prize ship "Farn" made a test case?

A.—This was a British merchant ship captured off Brazil by the German cruiser *Karlsruhe* on October 5, 1914. On January 12, 1915, she entered the port of San Juan, Porto Rico flying the German flag, and manned by a German prize crew, under the name K. D. 3. The British Government claimed that she was merely a prize, and that under this definition it was the duty of the United States to release her to her original British owners. The United States held that the ship clearly had been used as a tender to German warships between October 5 and January 12, that this was proper use of a prize, and that the prize thereby became stamped with the character of its service—in other words, that the *Farn*, having been converted by service into a tender or auxiliary, ceased to be a mere private prize and became a warship auxiliary. Under this ruling the K. D. 3 was interned, under the rules applicable to warships.

Q.—Are hydroaeroplanes considered as war vessels in international law?

A.—There were no hydroaeroplanes at the time of the Second Hague Conference, 1907, and therefore there is no established and definite statement of international law or agreement. When America began shipping these airboats to Great Britain and France, the German Ambassador held that they were not articles that a neutral nation could ship. His contention was that they really came under the definition "war vessels" which it was undeniably un-neutral to build or turn over to a belligerent during war. The United States Government held the view that they were aircraft, and nothing else, despite the fact that they could alight on, and rise from, the sea. The German Government did not pursue the subject and the United States continued to sell and ship.

Q.—Is a presidential proclamation a law?

A.—Not necessarily. As a rule, any desires expressed by a presidential proclamation enjoy the respect accorded to a law by the American people, but it does not follow that this would hold under all circumstances. Usually, to be sure, a presidential proclamation follows an

enabling statute passed by Congress, and the proclamation simply announces it to the people and explains the methods by which it will be put into effect and the penalties that follow its violation. However, a proclamation may not be a law at all. An instance of this is the proclamation against lynching and other deeds of violence which the President issued July 26, 1918. No new law had been passed to punish lynching, and under existing laws the Federal Government was, as a matter of fact, practically helpless to punish such crimes, which came within the police power of the individual States. This proclamation, therefore, depended on the moral effect produced by it.

Q.—Is an executive order a law?

A.—Not in the sense of a law passed by the legislative branch of the Federal Government. An executive order is mandatory, being a very real order to the various Departments and employees of the Government, which they may disobey only at their peril; but it need not be based on any specific law passed by Congress. So long as it does not violate any law passed by Congress, an executive order may cover anything and introduce quite new and unexpected methods. It is largely a matter of the President's personal prerogative. Executive orders have played an important part in many of the great political struggles in Washington. Thus, the big battles over Civil Service Reform, which lasted through many Administrations, were fought in good part by the issuance of executive orders that in turn helped or hampered reform, according to the forces in control at the time.

Q.—Did the Pope propose peace after we joined the war?

A.—Yes. A few months after we joined the war (August 1, 1917), Pope Benedict XV interceded with the warring nations to make peace, and he suggested as bases for a universal and lasting peace the limitation of armaments, international arbitration, and freedom of the seas. He proposed that all nations renounce indemnities and that all occupied territory be yielded. The territorial claims of conflicting nationalities were to be left to conciliatory adjustments.

Q.—Did the Allied answer to the Pope's note agree with ours?

A.—The Allied Governments practically left it to the United States to act as spokesman, and thus the American answer stood in effect as the unanimous reply of all the nations fighting the Central Powers. The American answer was dated August 27, 1917.

Q.—Did our reply refuse negotiations for peace?

A.—Our reply pointed out that the Pope in substance proposed a return to the status quo ante bellum (the condition as it was before war) after which there was to be a general condonation, disarmament and a concert of nations based on the principle of arbitration. The American argument was that no part of the great peace program could be carried out satisfactorily unless the restitution of the status quo ante furnished a firm and satisfactory base for it, and the statement was made that the object of this war "is to deliver the free peoples of the world from the menace and the actual power of a vast military establishment controlled by an irresponsible government."

Q.—Did the American reply to the Pope state definite war aims?

A.—It stated certain very definite principles. It stated that "no peace can rest securely upon political or economic restrictions meant to benefit some nations and cripple or embarrass others, upon vindictive action of any sort or any kind of revenge or deliberate injury. . . . We believe that the intolerable wrongs done in this war by the furious and brutal power of the Imperial German Government ought to be repaired, but not at the expense of the sovereignty of any people—rather a vindication of the sovereignty both of those that are weak and of those that are strong. Punitive damages, the dismemberment of empires, the establishment of selfish and exclusive economic leagues we deem inexpedient and in the end worse than futile, no proper basis for a peace of any kind, least of all for an enduring peace."

Q.—Did the American reply offer a test for peace plans?

A.—Yes. The note said: "The test of every plan of peace is this: Is it based upon the faith of all the peoples involved, or merely upon the word of an ambitious and intriguing government on the one hand, and of a group of free

peoples on the other? This is a test which goes to the root of the matter; and it is the test which must be applied."

Q.—What did the President say about dealing with the German Government?

A.—He said: "We cannot take the word of the present rulers of Germany as a guarantee of anything that is to endure, unless explicitly supported by such conclusive evidence of the will and purpose of the German people themselves as the other peoples of the world would be justified in accepting. Without such guarantees, treaties of settlement, agreements for disarmament, covenants to set up arbitration in the place of force, territorial adjustments, reconstitution of small nations, if made with the German Government, no man, no nation could now depend on. We must await some new evidence of the purpose of the great people of the Central Powers."

Q.—What does "status quo ante" mean?

A.—It means the status or condition that was in force before a given time. Used in relation to this war, it means the exact status before the war—in other words, a peace formed on the basis of status quo ante would exactly recreate the conditions that existed before July 28, 1914, the day when the first declaration of war was issued.

Q.—What is the American attitude toward the status quo ante?

A.—In an official message delivered to the Russian people two months after the revolution which dethroned the Czar (delivered to the Provisional Government of Russia May 26, 1917), the statement was made: "Of course, the Imperial Government and those whom it is using for their own undoing, are seeking to obtain pledges that the war will end in the restoration of the status quo ante. It was the status quo ante out of which this iniquitous war issued forth, the power of the Imperial German Government within the Empire and its widespread domination and influence outside of that Empire. That status must be altered in such fashion as to prevent any such hideous thing from ever happening again."

Q.—What was said about readjustments in the Russian message?

A.—The words were: "We are fighting for the liberty, the self-government, and the undictated development of all peoples, and every feature of the settlement that concludes this war must be conceived and executed for that purpose. Wrongs must first be righted, and then adequate safeguards must be created to prevent their being committed again. We ought not to consider remedies merely because they have a pleasing and sonorous sound. Practical questions can be settled only by practical means. Phrases will not accomplish the result. Effective readjustments will; and whatever readjustments are necessary must be made."

Q.—Was the principle of these readjustments laid down?

A.—The message repeated that "no people must be forced under sovereignty under which it does not wish to live. No territory must change hands except for the purpose of securing those who inhabit it a fair chance of life and liberty. No indemnities must be insisted on except those that constitute payments for manifest wrongs done. No readjustments of power must be made except such as will tend to secure the future peace of the world and the future welfare and happiness of its peoples."

Q.—Have definite war aims ever been laid officially before Congress?

A.—In an Address to Congress January 8, 1918, the President dealt with the Brest-Litovsk negotiations between the Central Empires and the Russian Soviet or Bolsheviki Government. In this address, a number of very definite objects (chief among them a certain set of principles that became noted as the "fourteen articles of peace") were formally and officially laid before the Senators and Representatives of the people of the United States.

This Address followed closely the annual Message to Congress (delivered December 4, 1917) which also had discussed the terms for a just and generous peace, while at the same time asking Congress to declare the United States at war with Austria-Hungary.

Q.—How did Congress vote on the principles laid down?

A.—Presidential addresses and Messages to Congress are not subject to a vote. They are merely delivered to Congress (either in writing, as was the rule in the past, or in person, as has been the rule in the Wilson administration) and Congress receives them, but need not indicate its sentiment toward them unless it choose to do so.

Q.—Must the President send messages to Congress?

A.—The Constitution of the United States makes it mandatory in Section III, Article II which provides that the President "shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient."

Q.—May he deliver as many messages as he may please?

A.—He may deliver Messages or Addresses to Congress as often as he may choose. As a matter of policy, however, our Presidents refrain from exercising the right too often, because over-use would tend to weaken the importance of them, and would lessen the public interest in these utterances from the executive head of the government.

Q.—What does "State of the Union" mean?

A.—It means anything that a President may deem important to the people of the United States. In a narrower sense, it means also that a Presidential Message usually carries a statement of finances, the state of commerce and of expenditures and needs of the various administrative and executive Departments of the Government.

Q.—Must Congress act on recommendations in Presidential messages?

A.—It is not mandatory on Congress to do so. Many recommendations have been passed over by Congresses without any action. Usually, however, a Presidential recommendation is followed by the introduction of bills (laws). These bills may be drafted in close compliance with the Presidential recommendations, but not necessarily so. Congress action on Presidential recommendations depends largely on the degree of power and influence with the public, or with Congress, or with both that a given President may enjoy. In recent years, and especially since the European War began, there has been a great increase in so-called "Administration bills"—that is, bills drafted in absolute compliance with Presidential recommendations. They are drafted either by members of Congress who are in close agreement with Administrative desires, or they are drafted directly within the Executive "family"— the heads of the Departments.

Q.—Can the heads of departments introduce such bills?

A.—No. The Cabinet officers have no seat in Congress. None of them may even appear before Congress without invitation or demand by Congress, except the President himself. An Administration bill, even though drafted by a President himself, can be introduced only by a Member of Congress. Thus, even the Declaration of War on Austria-Hungary, for which the President asked in the annual Message, had to be introduced in the form of a resolution proposed by members of Congress.

Q.—Could Congress oppose Presidential recommendations?

A.—Yes. A Congress has the legal power to enact laws that run directly counter to a Presidential recommendation. To do so would demand simply a sufficient majority in opposition. Since an American President has the power to veto Congress bills, political exigencies demand not merely a majority sufficient to pass a bill, but the still greater majority (two-thirds of the House and the Senate) necessary under the Constitution to re-pass a bill over a Presidential veto. It has often occurred, however, that a President has found himself in a political situation where he found it expedient not to exercise his power of veto, and to allow a bill to become a law even though it was contrary to his wishes.

Q.—In what other ways could Congress disapprove Presidential recommendations?

A.—Congress could pass resolutions that might range from specific and direct disapproval to expressions more or less guarded that would put the legislative body on record as being in opposition to the executive views and desires. Without passing any resolutions at all, Congress could open a debate (based, perhaps, on subjects not apparently touching the subject matter of a Presidential Message) and in the course of this debate the speeches on the floor might express to the people of the United States the fact that the Congress is antagonistic.

Q.—What was the attitude of Congress toward the "fourteen articles"?

A.—Speeches, resolutions, and the general tenor of Congress action on succeeding war legislation desired or recommended by the Administration indicated that Congress, as representing the people of the United States, received them with large approval. Where there were differences of opinion (mostly on the part of individual members of Congress) they were differences mainly as to specific details and not to the principles. It seems perfectly correct and safe to say that had a vote been necessary on Presidential Messages, this particular one would have been approved by a big majority, and probably unanimously.

Q.—Was the famous statement about secret diplomacy in these fourteen articles?

A.—It led all the others, being the first article. As stated in a previous question and answer (see some pages preceding this) its full wording was: "I. Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at; after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind, but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view."

Q.—Does our Constitution permit secret diplomacy?

A.—It does not interdict secret diplomatic negotiations, but the spirit of the Constitution is against them, and in one most important aspect the Constitution distinctly and positively prohibits secret entanglements. This prohibition is in Paragraph 2, Section II, Article II, which declares that the President "shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur."

Q.—What does "by and with the advice and consent" of the Senate mean?

A.—There has been much discussion at different times in our history whether this means that the Senate has the power to enter into even the preliminary negotiations toward a treaty, or whether the Senate's right to "advise and consent" begins only when a completed treaty is laid before it. To the non-hair-splitting mind, it has always appeared that the right to "advise" carries with it the right to be informed from the beginning. In actual practice, the Senate's power to reject a treaty absolutely naturally obliges the diplomatic service to exercise great care to make none that shall fail to meet public approval.

Q.—Could not the Senate approve a treaty in secret session?

A.—Yes. But here again the American practice forbids. The Senate may, and often does, discuss a treaty in "executive session" which is secret. But the final vote on such a treaty (and, indeed, usually, a final debate on treaties) is made public, and the treaty itself is published.

Q.—Does the Constitution permit secret Congress debates?

A.—Each House may determine its own rules for procedure, under a clause permitting this. As a matter of fact, of course, each Congress adheres to the established rules of procedure in the large sense. However, paragraph 3, Section V, Article I, says: "Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy."

Q.—What was the second article in the famous fourteen?

A.—"Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas, outside territorial waters,

alike in peace and in war, except as the seas may be closed in whole or in part by international action for the enforcement of international covenants."

Q.—Would free seas make for absolute freedom of trade?

A.—Not absolutely. There remain many other ways besides blocking the seas or destroying sea-borne commerce, by which one nation or a group of nations might throttle the trade of another nation or group. The most obvious is in erecting economic barriers—domestic laws hampering foreign shipping, onerous port laws, tariff walls and so forth. It is this contingency which the third article in the peace program covered.

Q.—What was this third article?

A.—Its exact wording was: "III. The removal, so far as possible, of all economic barriers and the establishment of an equality of trade conditions among all the nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance."

Q.—Could such freedom of trade exist side by side with rival war armaments?

A.—Not very well, and even if it did exist for a considerable period, it would always be under a precarious tenure. Whether it be true or not that trade rivalries are at the bottom of most wars, it seems equally true in a measure that rival armaments sooner or later are likely to be used for blocking rival trade. The fourth article in the American peace program is: "IV. Adequate guarantees given and taken that national armaments will be reduced to the lowest point consistent with national safety."

Q.—Would not militaristic nations claim that a huge armament is needed for "national safety"?

A.—"Defense" has always been the strongest argument of jingoes and others who at heart wanted a huge armament. Perfectly honest and magnanimous men, too, have at times been so impressed with the ever-present dangers inherent in international rivalries, jealousies and diplomacies, that they have felt that "defense" rightly means armament capable of overpowering the armament of rival nations or groups. But only the most hopelessly dishonest mind could so mis-read or misinterpret the statement as made in this Article IV. The position and the ideals of the United States have been stated so often, so simply and so unequivocally that the honest minds of the whole world know that the limitation of armament as suggested here is limitation to a degree where no nation's armament can threaten another.

Q.—Did the fourteen articles touch territorial adjustments?

A.—Nine of them were devoted to that aspect of international settlement. Article V led this part of the program with the following statement as to colonies: "V. A free, open-minded, and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims, based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the Government whose title is to be determined."

Q.—Did one of the articles offer a solution of the Russian problem?

A.—Article VI laid down not a solution but the elements on which the solution must rest. It provided for "The evacuation of all Russian territory, and such a settlement of all questions affecting Russia as will secure the best and freest co-operation of the other nations of the world in obtaining for her an unhampered and unembarrassed opportunity for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy, and assure her of a sincere welcome into the society of free nations under institutions of her own choosing; and, more than a welcome, assistance also of every kind that she may need and may herself desire."

Q.—Did we disavow all selfish purposes regarding Russia?

A.—Most specifically. The concluding paragraph in Article VI said: "The treatment accorded Russia by her sister nations in the months to come will be the acid test of their good will, of their comprehension of her needs as distin-

guished from their own interests, and of their intelligent and unselfish sympathy."

Q.—What principle was laid down regarding Belgium?

A.—Article VII said: "Belgium, the whole world will agree, must be evacuated and restored without any attempt to limit the sovereignty which she enjoys in common with all other free nations. No other single act will serve as this will serve to restore confidence among the nations in the laws which they have themselves set and determined for the government of their relations with one another. Without this healing act the whole structure and validity of international law is forever impaired."

Q.—Did one of the articles demand the restoration of Alsace-Lorraine to France?

A.—Article VIII dealt with the matter of Alsace-Lorraine and it said that the wrong done to France by Prussia "should be righted." The exact text of Article VIII is: "All French territory should be freed and the invaded portions restored; and the wrong done to France by Prussia in 1871 in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine, which has unsettled the peace of the world for nearly fifty years, should be righted, in order that peace may once more be made secure in the interests of all."

Q.—What was said in the Presidential address about the Italian claims?

A.—The Italian territorial question was the subject of Article IX, which was: "A readjustment of the frontiers of Italy should be effected along clearly recognizable lines of nationality."

Q.—Are these claims the ones that inspire the "Italia Irredenta" movement?

A.—Very largely. The movement, however, also has the impelling force of a striving for spiritual unity among the Italian races. It must be remembered that the present united Italy is of very modern creation. For centuries before that, Italian dreamers and patriots had longed for it vainly, being defeated continually by internecine conflicts between various Italian States and ruling houses, and by constant disruption due to wars with outside nations.

Q.—What does "Italia Irredenta" mean?

A.—It means "Italy unredeemed" and in recent years this has meant the territory on the north and the northeast—the Trentino and Trieste. Up to 1866 and 1870 when Venetia and the Papal States were won to Italy, the term included those territories also, but the real growth of the modern Italia Irredenta movement came after 1878.

Q.—How did Austria get possession of territory claimed by Italy?

A.—Austria's hold goes back to the involved wars and intrigues of past centuries, some of the possessions dating back to the days of the Holy Roman Empire which itself was an extraordinary welter of German States and Kingdoms, Austrian and Bohemian States, Italian and Papal States, with the Emperors sometimes very powerful and at other times very weak and holding their thrones only by grace of the lesser Princes or through jealousies that prevented combinations against the Emperor. At one time Austria held all of Venetia. To the south lay the Papal States, stretching along the Adriatic on the east and extending across Italy to the western coast. Wars with France contributed to the complications that make Italian history a confused one to all but close historical students. Through it all, however, there remained alive the struggle for unity, to be made into fact at last by Garibaldi and his fellow revolutionists.

Austria's signal defeat by Prussia in 1866 enabled Italy to regain Venetia. In 1870, when the Franco-Prussian War began, Napoleon III had to withdraw the French troops from Rome, and the Italians entered the city September 20, 1870.

Q.—Why did Italy join the Triple Alliance with Austria as one of the three?

A.—Very largely because after Italy at last had achieved a national existence, her statesmen felt that the young State was too weak against possible enemies. Inspired by this feeling, these men, chief

among whom was the famous patriot Crispi, sought approach to Germany. As Crispi says in his memoirs, Bismarck was willing, but he pointed to the fact that Germany had friendship with Austria-Hungary as a dominating motive, and could not draw closer to an Italy harboring enmity toward that nation. "The way to Berlin lies through Vienna" is one of Bismarck's sayings quoted by Crispi. The advice was accepted and the triple alliance was the result some years later.

Q.—Did Austria offer to yield some of the disputed territory to Italy?

A.—Some time after the war had begun, and while Italy still was neutral but moving fast toward war, Austria-Hungary offered to cede certain northern territory of fairly large extent. The condition was made, however, that Austria was to hold it until the war ended. After considerable negotiation the two nations failed to agree, and soon thereafter Italy declared war.

Q.—What did the fourteen articles say about Austria-Hungary and the Balkans?

A.—Article X said: "The peoples of Austria-Hungary, whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and assured, should be accorded the freest opportunity of autonomous development."

Article XI was: "Roumania, Serbia and Montenegro should be evacuated; occupied territories restored; Serbia accorded free and secure access to the sea; and the relations of the several Balkan States to one another determined by friendly counsel along historically established lines of allegiance and nationality; and international guaranties of the political and economic independence and territorial integrity of the several Balkan States should be entered into."

Q.—How many nationalities are there in Austria-Hungary?

A.—There are some eighteen groups that lay claim to "nationality." Bohemia is overwhelmingly Slav and demands recognition as such. Trieste is almost a pure Italian city; Trentino is Italian, and the townsfolk of Dalmatia are Italians. The districts of Carniola and parts of Carinthia are Slav. Hungary is ruled by Magyars, but within its limits are millions of Slavs. Croatia is pure Slav. The "Hungarian" seaport of Fiume is a pure Slav city.

Q.—Just what are the Slavs?

A.—Originally they were, presumably, Asiatic, but that is of interest only to the ethnologists. The big contemporaneous fact is that the Slav races of eastern and southeastern Europe, different though they be in appearance, thought, manners and even speech, constitute a greater part of the population of that region, and are inspired by a great ambition for racial unity.

Q.—Are the Slavs mixed in with other populations?

A.—They are. It is this fact that has made a great deal of the political trouble in the past and that will make much in the future, unless a most enlightened method is found of protecting minorities. If the time-honored majority-rule is accepted, then there will always be a very large population which happens to be in the electoral minority, that will be utterly dominated by another race which happens to have the majority.

In Austria-Hungary, however, as at present constituted, the political arrangements are such as to allow minorities (German and Hungarian) to dominate majorities (Czechs, Poles, Ruthenes, Slovenes, Dalmatians, Roumanians).

Q.—What regions in Europe are inhabited by Slavs?

A.—The Slavs inhabit eastern and southeastern Europe, where they are the great majority of the population, but they are not geographically united. The main stock comprises the Russians, Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, and Ruthenes or Little Russians. In the south, and separated from the northern branch by a solid barrier of Germans, Magyars, and Roumanians, live the Southern or Jugo-Slavs. The Bulgars have usually been included in the Southern Slavs, but they were originally an Asiatic people who have been Slavicized.

Q.—What is Pan-Slavism?

A.—Spiritually it was an expression of deep sentimental and poetical aspiration of the Slav races and tribes for spiritual unity. About forty years ago it assumed political importance, playing a considerable part in the Balkan rebellions against Turkish rule. Since then it has turned

itself against the domination of Slav majorities and minorities everywhere by other nationalities.

Q.—How could Serbia get access to the sea?

A.—In any of three directions: by an extension of her territories southeastward across Macedonia and so to the Ægean Sea somewhere near the Gulf of Saloniki. By an extension due westward through Bosnia, or by incorporating Bosnia in her territory and thus giving her access to the Dalmatian Adriatic sea coast. By an extension southwestward into what is now Albania and thus bringing her out on the Adriatic south of Montenegro.

Q.—How did Austria and Serbia come to blows?

A.—On June 28, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, and his wife, were assassinated in Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. The assassin and some of his accomplices were taken and the Austro-Hungarian government charged that the Serbian government was responsible for the agitation that had led to the deed and that at least some Serbian officials had guilty cognizance of the conspiracy itself.

Q.—What was the general origin of Serbo-Austrian enmity?

A.—Pan-Slavism fundamentally; but specifically there had grown a most powerful feeling of nationalism in Serbia after the second Balkan War, when Serbia had expanded into Macedonia. The Pan-Slavic movement thus acquired a controlling character of Pan-Serbism—that is, from being the large general demand for the unity of Slavic people, it had become a movement for extension of Serbian sovereignty over Serbish people. It created a Serbian demand for the incorporation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, with a "window on the Adriatic."

Q.—Who possessed Bosnia and Herzegovina originally?

A.—Turkey owned them, but there were many rebellions against Turkish rule. Many of these were, however, not so much on national or racial lines as on religious lines, being based largely on the desire of the Christian populations to free themselves from Moslem rule.

Q.—When did Austria-Hungary get the provinces?

A.—After Russia defeated Turkey in the war of 1877-1878. In the settlement known as the Congress of Berlin (1878), Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under loose Austro-Hungarian control, while remaining nominally a Turkish possession.

Q.—What caused the first big opposition to Austria?

A.—In 1908 the Imperial Government of Austria-Hungary was extended over the provinces by decree, thus violating the Treaty of Berlin. In other words, Austria-Hungary took into her actual possession the territories that had been placed into her care, for more or less limited control, thirty years before. Those thirty years had seen a great awakening of the political sense among all the people of Europe, and especially among the Slavs, Croatians, Bohemians, and other Allied races. Therefore, while in actuality the change was slight (since Austria had been sovereign to all intents and purposes), the people's attitude toward it was the difference between a Europe of 1878 and a Europe of 1908. It was the new generation of Bosnians and Herzegovinians who responded to the stirrings of race and political thought.

Q.—Once we heard continually of Macedonia. What part did it play as a cause for the war?

A.—No direct part. Macedonia occupied world attention because of the struggle to throw off Turkish domination, and this struggle had a chief part in bringing a union of Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia and Montenegro against Turkey. The war of 1912-1913 followed, and Turkey lost the greater part of her Balkan territory. The Balkan Allies, however, fell out over the division of the conquered territory, and particularly over Macedonia.

"National aspirations" played the greatest part in the quarrel. Each of the involved nations alleged that its own nationals inhabited contested parts of the province. Bulgarians declared that Greece and Serbia were trying to take parts that contained purely Bulgarian population, and the second Balkan war began June, 1913.

The result of it was that Bulgaria, badly defeated by her former allies, lost all of the Macedonian territory that she declared belonged to her by right of nationality, except for a small strip that gave her limited access to the Ægean Sea. Roumania, which had entered the second Balkan war against Bulgaria, took from

her a strip of territory on the Black Sea—the Dobrudja.

Q.—Did the President's peace program include settlement of Turkish questions?

A.—Yes. Article XII is the one that dealt with Turkey. Its wording was: "The Turkish portions of the present Ottoman Empire should be assured a secure sovereignty, but the other nationalities which are now under Turkish rule should be assured an undoubted security of life and an unmolested opportunity of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles should be permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guaranties."

Q.—What was the principle in the Presidential peace program for Poland?

A.—Article XIII declared: "An independent Polish State should be erected which should include the territories inhabited by indisputably Polish populations, which should be assured a free and secure access to the sea, and whose political and economic independence and territorial integrity should be guaranteed by international covenant."

Q.—In what direction could Poland have access to the sea?

A.—Northward to the Baltic. The ancient Poland extended to that ocean. In the sixteenth century Poland still possessed a strip of Baltic sea coast between Germany and the Provinces of Livonia and Courland. If that form of access were restored, the new Poland would have the present west Prussian port of Danzig. Without actual territorial outlet on the sea, "access" might be provided by establishing free navigation of the Vistula River, which empties into the Baltic. An extension of territory northeastward through Livonia and Courland would give Poland territorial footing on the Gulf of Riga.

Q.—What was the final article of the peace program?

A.—Article XIV called for a league of nations in these words: "A general association of nations must be formed, under specific covenants, for the purpose of affording mutual guaranties of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small States alike."

Q.—What was the occasion for the address of January, 1918?

A.—The Central Powers had begun negotiation with the Russian delegation at Brest-Litovsk, and had pretended that they would not prolong the war a single day for the sake of conquest, and that they were ready for a peace "without forcible annexations and indemnities." tral Powers did not wish to deprive of Count Czernin had stated that the Cenpolitical independence those nations which lost it during the war: that the protection of minorities constituted an essential component part of the constitutional right of peoples to self determination; and they thought both sides might waive indemnification for both war costs and war damage. He added: "It is necessary, however, to indicate most clearly that the proposals of the Russian delegation could be realized only in case all the powers participating in the war obligate themselves scrupulously to adhere to the terms in common with all peoples."

Q.—Did the Central Powers carry out their promises at Brest-Litovsk?

A.—No. And the President's Address of January 8, 1918, said that it was a reasonable conjecture that the suggested principles of settlement originated with the more liberal statesmen of Germany and Austria while the concrete terms of actual settlement came "from the military leaders who have no thought but to keep what they have got." Notwithstanding this, he took up their challenge to their adversaries to say what sort of settlement they would deem just and satisfactory.

Q.—Was any reply made to the American peace program by the Central Powers?

A.—The German Chancellor, Von Hertling, and Count Czernin of Austria replied in speeches which they delivered on January 24, 1918. Von Hertling spoke in generalities, and maintained that the various nations among the Allies must negotiate separately, and that each question should be settled with the nation concerned. It was essentially an appeal to the spirit of old-time diplomacy, to the

methods of the Congress of Vienna and similar old peace conferences. Czernin spoke more clearly. He agreed to the principle of a free Poland and his remarks about Belgium and about national aspirations were somewhat encouraging.

Q.—How did America respond?

A.—The American response was through another Presidential address to Congress, delivered February 11, 1918. The address referred with considerable approval to Count Czernin's speech, but opposed Von Hertling's remarks and proposal with the words: "The method the German Chancellor proposes is the method of the Congress of Vienna. We cannot and will not return to that. What is at stake now is the peace of the world. What we are striving for is a new international order based upon broad and universal principles of right and justice—no more peace of shreds and patches. Is it possible that Count Von Hertling does not see that, does not grasp it, is in fact living in his thought in a world dead and gone? Has he utterly forgotten the Reichstag resolutions of the 19th of July, or does he deliberately ignore them?"

Q.—What was the gist of the statement that replied to Count Czernin?

A.—It stated that the United States was quite ready to consider evidence that the settlements suggested by the Government were not the best or the most enduring and that "they are only her own provisional sketch of principles and of the way in which they should be applied." The address continued: "After all, the test of whether it is possible for either Government to go any further in this comparison of views is simple and obvious. The principles to be applied are these: . . ." There followed a statement of four principles for testing the possibility of agreeing on basic and fundamental terms.

Q.—Did these four principles make new demands?

A.—No. They merely re-stated in a large and general way the basic things that America felt to be absolutely vital to any discussion of a just peace. They were: (1) That each part of the final settlement must be based upon the essential justice of that particular case and upon such adjustments as are most likely to bring a peace that will be permanent; (2) that peoples and provinces are not to be bartered about from sovereignty to sovereignty as if they were mere chattels and pawns in a game, even the great game, now forever discredited, of the balance of power; but that (3) every territorial settlement involved in this war must be made in the interest and for the benefit of the populations concerned, and not as part of any mere adjustment or compromise of claims amongst rival States; and (4) that all well-defined national aspirations shall be accorded the utmost satisfaction that can be accorded them without introducing new, or perpetuating old, elements of discord and antagonism that would be likely in time to break the peace of Europe and consequently of the world.

Q.—When did America declare that force was the only possible reply to the Central Powers?

A.—On April 6, 1918, through a Presidential speech in Baltimore, a year after war with Germany had officially begun. By that time the proceedings in Russia, Finland, the Ukraine and in Roumania had convinced America that the militarist factions in the Central Empires proposed to exploit victory in the old way, and to gather the fruits by force. It was in reference to this that the President said:

"Germany has once more said that force, and force alone, shall decide whether justice and peace shall reign in the affairs of men, whether right as America conceives it or dominion as she conceives it shall determine the destinies of mankind. There is, therefore, but one response possible from us: Force, force to the utmost, force without stint or limit, the righteous and triumphant force which shall make right the law of the world and cast every selfish dominion down in the dust."

Q.—Did we then declare that we would not consider peace?

A.—No. Though accepting the challenge of force, the President said in the same speech:

"What, then are we to do? For myself, I am ready, ready still, ready even now, to discuss a fair and just and honest peace at any time that it is sincerely proposed—a peace in which the strong and the weak shall fare alike. But the answer, when I proposed such a peace, came from the German commanders in Russia and I cannot mistake the meaning of the answer."

Another statement he made was:

"We have ourselves proposed no injus-

tice, no aggression. We are ready, whenever the final reckoning is made, to be just to the German people, deal fairly with the German power, as with all others. There can be no difference between peoples in the final judgment, if it is indeed to be a righteous judgment. To propose anything but justice, even-handed and dispassionate justice, to Germany at any time, whatever the outcome of the war, would be to renounce and dishonor our own cause, for we ask nothing that we are not willing to accord."

Q.—What was the first of the final peace notes?

A.—A note dated September 16, 1918, from the Austro-Hungarian Government proposing a "confidential and non-binding discussion." The American reply, made promptly on September 17th, was that the United States "has repeatedly, and with entire candor, stated the terms upon which the United States would consider peace, and can and will entertain no proposal for a conference upon a matter concerning which it has made its position and purposes so plain."

Q.—When did the German Government ask for an armistice?

A.—On October 6, 1918, in a note through the Swiss Charge d'Affaires in Washington, asking for peace and stating:

"The German Government accepts, as a basis for peace negotiations, the program laid down by the President of the United States in his message to Congress on January 8, 1918, and in his subsequent pronouncements, particularly in his address of September 27, 1918.

"In order to avoid further bloodshed the German Government requests the immediate conclusion of a general armistice on land, on water, and in the air.

Q.—What was our reply?

A.—It was dated October 8, 1918, and was:

"Before making reply to the request of the Imperial German Government, and in order that that reply shall be as candid and straightforward as the momentous interests involved require, the President of the United States deems it necessary to assure himself of the exact meaning of the note of the Imperial Chancellor. Does the Imperial Chancellor mean that the Imperial German Government accepts the terms laid down by the President in his address to the Congress of the United States on the 8th of January last, and in subsequent addresses, and that its object in entering into discussions would be only to agree upon the practical details of their application?

"The President feels bound to say with regard to the suggestion of an armistice that he would not feel at liberty to propose a cessation of arms to the Governments with which the Government of the United States is associated against the Central Powers so long as the armies of those Powers are upon their soil. The good faith of any discussion would manifestly depend upon the consent of the Central Powers immediately to withdraw their forces everywhere from invaded territory.

"The President also feels that he is justified in asking whether the Imperial Chancellor is speaking merely for the constituted authorities of the Empire who have so far conducted the war. He deems the answers to these questions vital from every point of view."

Q.—How did Germany reply?

A.—Germany replied on October 12, 1918.

"The German Government has accepted the terms laid down by President Wilson, in his address of January 8, and in his subsequent addresses on the foundation of a permanent peace of justice. Consequently, its object in entering into discussion would be only to agree upon practical details of the application of these terms. The German Government believes that the Government of the powers associated with the Government of the United States also take the position taken by President Wilson in his addresses.

"The German Government, in accordance with the Austro-Hungarian Government for the purpose of bringing about an armistice, declares itself ready to comply with the proposition of the President in regard to evacuation. The German Government suggests that the President may occasion the meeting of a mixed commission for making the necessary arrangements concerning the evacuation.

"The present German Government which has undertaken the responsibility for this step towards peace has been formed by conferences and in agreement with the great majority of the Reichstag. The Chancellor, supported in all his actions by the will of this ma-

jority, speaks in the name of the German Government and of the German people.

Q.—Was the destruction of arbitrary power demanded in the answer to this note?

A.—Yes. The American note, dated October 14, 1918, said:

"The unqualified acceptance by the present German Government and by a large majority of the German Reichstag of the terms laid down by the President of the United States, in his address to the Congress of the United States on the 8th of January, 1918, and in his subsequent addresses justifies the President in making a frank and direct statement of his decision with regard to the communications of the German Government.

"It must be clearly understood that the process of evacuation and the conditions of an armistice are matters which must be left to the judgment and advice of the military advisers of the Government of the United States and the allied Governments, and the President feels it his duty to say that no arrangement can be accepted by the Government of the United States which does not provide absolutely satisfactory safeguards and guarantees of the maintenance of the present military supremacy of the armies of the United States and of the Allies in the field. He feels confident that he can safely assume that this will also be the judgment and decision of the allied governments.

"The President feels that it is also his duty to add that neither the Government of the United States nor, he is quite sure, the Governments with which the Government of the United States is associated as a belligerent will consent to consider an armistice so long as the armed forces of Germany continue the illegal and inhumane practices which they still persist in. At the very time that the German Government approaches the Government of the United States with proposals of peace, its submarines are engaged in sinking passenger ships at sea, and not the ships alone, but the very boats in which their passengers and crews seek to make their way to safety; and in their present enforced withdrawal from Flanders and France the German armies are pursuing a course of wanton destruction which has always been regarded as in direct violation of the rules and practices of civilized warfare. Cities and villages, if not destroyed, are being stripped of all they contain not only, but often of their very inhabitants. The nations associated against Germany cannot be expected to agree to a cessation of arms while acts of inhumanity, spoliation, and desolation are being continued which they justly look upon with horror and with burning hearts.

"It is necessary also, in order that there may be no possibility of misunderstanding, that the President should very solemnly call the attention of the Government of Germany to the language and plain intent of one of the terms of peace which the German Government has now accepted. It is contained in the address of the President, delivered at Mount Vernon on the Fourth of July last. It is as follows:

" 'The destruction of every arbitrary power anywhere that can separately, secretly, and of its single choice disturb the peace of the world; or, if it cannot be presently destroyed, at least its reduction to virtual impotency.'

"The power which has hitherto controlled the German nation is of the sort here described. It is within the choice of the German nation to alter it. The President's words, just quoted, naturally constitute a condition precedent to peace, if peace is to come by the action of the German people themselves. The President feels bound to say that the whole process of peace will, in his judgment, depend upon the definiteness and the satisfactory character of the guarantees which can be given in this fundamental matter. It is indispensable that the governments associated against Germany should know beyond a peradventure with whom they are dealing."

Q.—When did the United States declare the Czecho-Slovaks and Jugo-Slavs as parties to peace settlements?

A.—On October 18, 1918, in the reply to the Austro-Hungarian note. It was:

"The President deems it his duty to say to the Austro-Hungarian government that he cannot entertain the present suggestions of that government because of certain events of utmost importance, which, occurring since the delivery of his address of the 8th of January last, have necessarily altered the attitude and responsibility of the government of the United States. Among the fourteen terms of peace which the President formulated at the time is the following:

"X. The peoples of Austria-Hungary, whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and assured, should be accorded the freest opportunity of autonomous development."

"Since that sentence was written and uttered to the Congress of the United States the Government of the United States has recognized that a state of belligerency exists between the Czecho-Slovaks and the German and Austro-Hungarian empires, and that the Czecho-Slovak National Council is a de facto belligerent government, clothed with proper authority to direct the military and political affairs of the Czecho-Slovaks. It has also recognized in the fullest manner the justice of the nationalistic aspirations of the Jugo-Slavs for freedom.

"The President is, therefore, no longer at liberty to accept the mere 'autonomy' of these peoples as a basis of peace, but is obliged to insist that they, and not he, shall be the judges of what action on the part of the Austro-Hungarian government will satisfy their aspirations and their conception of their rights and destiny as members of the family of nations."

Q.—Did Austria-Hungary accept this condition?

A.—On October 29, 1918, the Swedish minister in Washington transmitted Austria-Hungary's answer accepting the conditions and again asking for an immediate armistice on all fronts.

Q.—Did Germany claim that "arbitrary power" was to be abolished?

A.—On October 20, 1918, Germany addressed the United States thus:

"In accepting the proposal for an evacuation of occupied territories the German government has started from the assumption that the procedure of this evacuation and of the conditions of an armistice should be left to the judgment of military advisers, and that the actual standard of power on both sides in the field has to form the basis for arrangements safeguarding and guaranteeing this standard. The German government suggests to the President that an opportunity should be brought about for fixing its details. It trusts that the President of the United States will approve of no demand which would be irreconcilable with the honor of the German people and with opening a way to a peace of justice.

"The German government protests against the reproach of illegal and inhumane actions made against the German land and sea forces and thereby against the German people. For the covering of a retreat destructions will always be necessary, and they are carried out in so far as is permitted by international law. The German troops are under the most strict instruction to spare private property and to exercise care for the population to the best of their ability. Where transgressions occur in spite of these instructions the guilty are being punished.

"The German government further denies that the Germany navy, in sinking ships has ever purposely destroyed lifeboats with their passengers. The German government proposes with regard to all those charges that the facts be cleared up by neutral commissions. In order to avoid anything that might hamper the work of peace the German government has caused orders to be dispatched to all submarine commanders precluding the torpedoing of passenger ships, without, however, for technical reasons, being able to guarantee that these orders will reach every submarine at sea before its return.

"As a fundamental condition for peace the President characterizes the destruction of every arbitrary power that can separately, secretly and of its own single choice disturb the peace of the world. To this the German government replies: Hitherto the representation of the people in the German Empire has not been endowed with an influence on the formation of the government. The constitution did not provide for a concurrence of representation of the people in decisions on peace and war. These conditions have just now undergone a fundamental change. The new government has been formed in complete accordance with the wishes of the representation of the people, based on equal, universal, secret, direct franchise.

"The leaders of the great parties of the Reichstag are members of this government. In future no government can take or continue in office without possessing the confidence of a majority of the Reichstag. The responsibility of the Chancellor of the Empire to the representation of the people is being legally developed and safeguarded. The first act of the new government has been to lay before the Reichstag a bill to alter the Constitution of the Empire so that the consent of the representation of the

people is required for decisions on war and peace. The permanence of the new system is, however, guaranteed not only by constitutional safeguards, but also by the unshakable determination of the German people, whose vast majority stand behind these reforms and demand their energetic continuance.

"The question of the President, i. e., with whom he and the governments associated against Germany are dealing, is therefore answered in a clear, unequivocal manner by the statement that the offer of peace and an armistice has come from a government which, free from any arbitrary and irresponsible influence, is supported by the approval of an overwhelming majority of the German people."

Q.—What was our reply?

A.—On October 23, 1918, the United States replied:

"Having received the solemn and explicit assurance of the German government that it unreservedly accepts the terms of peace laid down in his address to the Congress of the United States on the 8th of January, 1918, and the principles of settlement enunciated in his subsequent addresses, particularly the address of the 27th of September, and that it desires to discuss the details of their application, and that this wish and purpose emanate, not from those who have hitherto dictated German policy and conducted the present war on Germany's behalf, but from ministers who speak for the majority of the Reichstag and for an overwhelming majority of the German people; and having received also the explicit promise of the present German government that the humane rules of civilized warfare will be observed both on land and sea by the German armed forces, the President of the United States feels that he cannot decline to take up with the governments with which the Government of the United States is associated the question of an armistice.

"He deems it his duty to say again, however, that the only armistice he would feel justified in submitting for consideration would be one which should leave the United States and the powers associated with her in a position to enforce any arrangement that may be entered into and to make a renewal of hostilities on the part of Germany impossible. The President has, therefore, transmitted his correspondence with the present German authorities to the governments with which the Government of the United States is associated as a belligerent, with the suggestion that, if those governments are disposed to effect peace upon the terms and principles indicated, their military advisers and the military advisers of the United States be asked to submit to the governments associated against Germany the necessary terms of such an armistice as will fully protect the interests of the peoples involved and insure to the associated governments the unrestricted power to safeguard and enforce the details of the peace to which the German government has agreed, provided they deem such an armistice possible from the military point of view. Should such terms of armistice be suggested, their acceptance by Germany will afford the best concrete evidence of her unequivocal acceptance of the terms and principles of peace from which the whole action proceeds.

"The President would deem himself lacking in candor did he not point out in the frankest possible terms the reason why extraordinary safeguards must be demanded. Significant and important as the constitutional changes seem to be which are spoken of by the German Foreign Secretary in his note of the 20th of October, it does not appear that the principle of a government responsible to the German people has yet been fully worked out or that any guarantees either exist or are in contemplation that the alterations of principle and of practice now partially agreed upon will be permanent. Moreover, it does not appear that the heart of the present difficulty has been reached. It may be that future wars have been brought under the control of the German people, but the present war has not been, and it is with the present war that we are dealing.

"It is evident that the German people have no means of commanding the acquiescence of the military authorities of the Empire in the popular will; that the power of the King of Prussia to control the policy of the empire is unimpaired; that the determining initiative still remains with those who have hitherto been the masters of Germany. Feeling that the whole peace of the world depends now on plain speaking and straightforward action, the President deems it his duty to say, without any attempt to soften what may seem harsh words, that the nations of the world do not, and can not, trust the

words of those who have hitherto been masters of German policy, and to point out once more that in concluding peace and attempting to undo the infinite injuries and injustices of this war the government of the United States can not deal with any but veritable representatives of the German people who have been assured of a genuine constitutional standing as the real rulers of Germany. If it must deal with the military masters and the monarchical autocrats of Germany now, or if it is likely to have to deal with them later in regard to the international obligations of the German Empire, it must demand, not peace negotiations, but surrender. Nothing can be gained by leaving this essential thing unsaid."

On October 27, 1918, Germany responded, affirming that far-reaching changes had been and were being made in the German constitutional structure.

Q.—On what basis was armistice discussion begun?

A.—On the basis of an American note handed to the Swiss Minister in Washington on November 5, 1918:

"In my note of October 23, 1918, I advised you that the President had transmitted his correspondence with the German authorities to the governments with which the Government of the United States is associated as a belligerent, with the suggestion that if those governments were disposed to accept peace upon the terms and principles indicated, their military advisers and the military advisers of the United States be asked to submit to the governments associated against Germany the necessary terms of such an armistice as would fully protect the interests of the peoples involved, and insure to the associated governments the unrestricted power to safeguard and enforce the details of the peace to which the German government had agreed, provided they deem such an armistice possible from the military point of view.

"The President is now in receipt of a memorandum of observations by the allied governments on this correspondence, which is as follows:

"'The allied governments have given careful consideration to the correspondence which has passed between the President of the United States and the German government. Subject to the qualifications which follow, they declare their willingness to make peace with the government of Germany on the terms of peace laid down in the President's address to Congress of January, 1918, and the principles of settlement enunciated in his subsequent addresses. They must point out, however, that Clause 2, relating to what is usually described as the freedom of the seas, is open to various interpretations, some of which they could not accept. They must, therefore, reserve to themselves complete freedom on this subject when they enter the peace conference.

"'Further, in the conditions of peace laid down in his address to Congress of January 8 1918, the President declared that invaded territories must be restored, as well as evacuated and freed. The allied governments feel that no doubt ought to be allowed to exist as to what this provision implies. By it they understand that compensation will be made by Germany for all damage done to the civilian population of the Allies and their property by the aggression of Germany by land, by sea, and from the air.'

"I am instructed by the President to say that he is in agreement with the interpretation set forth in the last paragraph of the memorandum above quoted. I am further instructed by the President to request you to notify the German government that Marshal Foch has been authorized by the Government of the United States and the allied governments to receive properly accredited representatives of the German government and to communicate to them terms of an armistice."

AMERICAN FIGHTERS IN FRANCE

Q.—How many American troops went to Europe in 1917?

A.—Altogether 187,928. In May, 1917, the month following declaration of a state of war, 1,718 sailed. In June 12,261 went. In the following months the embarkations were: July, 12,988; August, 18,323; September, 32,523; October, 38,259; November, 23,016; December, 48,840.

Q.—How many did we send in 1918?

A.—Up to August the monthly embarkations for 1918 had been: January, 48,776; February, 48,027; March, 83,811; April, 117,212; May, 244,345; June, 276,372; July, enough over 300,000, to make a total of at least 1,320,000. In the first 20 days of July the embarkations were 234,000, a daily average of 11,700 men.

Q.—Were these troops all under one command?

A.—They were all under command of General John Joseph Pershing, Commander-in-Chief of the American army abroad.

Q.—How was this army organized?

A.—In July, 1918, it was announced that part of the overseas force was in five army corps, designated as First, Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth, forming the First Field Army.

Q.—What is the official designation of the over-seas army?

A.—It is designated as "The American Expeditionary Forces."

Q.—How large was the whole American army?

A.—In July, 1918, the entire American army, at home and over-seas, had grown to 2,170,400 men. Of these 2,010,000 were enlisted men and 160,400 were officers.

Q.—What was the size of the army when war began?

A.—The Secretary of War said in a report of June 28, 1918:

"1. Since April 6, 1917, the regular army has increased from 5,791 officers and 121,797 enlisted men to 11,365 officers and 514,376 enlisted men; the National Guard in Federal service from 3,733 officers and 76,713 enlisted men to 17,070 officers and 417,441 enlisted men; the Reserve Corps in actual service has increased from 4,000 enlisted men to 131,968 officers and 78,560 enlisted men; the National Army has been created with an enlisted force of approximately 1,000,000 men.

"The army has increased in fourteen months from 9,254 officers and 202,510 enlisted men to approximately 160,400 officers and 2,010,000 enlisted men.

In August, 1918, General March, Chief of Staff, told Congress that the whole army on August 1 had become 3,012,012 men, apportioned as follows: Oversea force, exclusive of Marines, 1,301,742; in the United States and insular possessions, 1,432,706; August draft, 277,664.

Q.—How many Americans were in the great fighting of July and August, 1918?

A.—On July 20, soon after the big Allied offensive was under way, 270,000 American troops were engaged between Chateau-Thierry and Soissons alone. Seven divisions and at least one separate regiment participated. That would mean that at least 160,000 American troops were actually in the fierce fighting, the others being on the lines of supply, etc. In addition there were 30,000 men east of Rheims, making the whole number of Americans engaged 200,000 men at least. More were thrown in as the battle progressed.

Q.—What troops were engaged first?

A.—The 42d, or Rainbow, Division, composed of National Guard troops from twenty-six States and the District of Columbia, including the New York 69th Infantry, then designated as the 165th Infantry, fought in the Champagne east of Rheims.

The six other divisions were associated with the French in the counter-offensive between Chateau-Thierry and Soissons. These were the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th of the regular army, the 26th National Guard Division, composed of troops from the six New England States, and the 28th, composed of the Pennsylvania National Guard. Marines were included in this number.

Q.—What American troops became known as "devil-dogs"?

A.—The United States Marines, who figured so strikingly in the first really heavy American fighting against the Germans that the latter called them "Teufelhunde," which is "devil-dogs" in English. Of course the Marines were greatly delighted with the involuntary compliment, and lost no time in spreading it.

Q.—Why are they called "Soldiers of the Sea"?

A.—Because they are trained especially for fighting ashore. They are organized into brigades and regiments. Transports manned by the Navy are maintained to carry these soldier-sailors under the command of their own officers. The Marine Corps is a separate branch of the navy, bearing the same relation to the rest of the navy as the artillery bears to the rest of the army. While forming a part of the crew of a war ship, they may be stationed at any gun, except gun turrets. As a rule, they man the Torpedo Defense Battery.

Q.—Is the U. S. Marine Corps of recent organization?

A.—The Marines were the first of our regular services to don the American uniform. Before the Continental Congress formed the Army and Navy, it mustered in "two battalions of American Marines" on the tenth of November, 1775. In 1805, as Soldiers of the Sea, a company of Marines under Lieutenant O'Bannon hauled down the flag of the Bey of Tripoli; then ran up the first American flag to fly over a captured fortress in the Old World.

Q.—What was the first activity of the Marines in this war?

A.—In less than an hour after the declaration of a state of war was signed by the President, marines from the Philadelphia Navy Yard, under Captain Robert L. Denig, U.S.M.C., seized three ships interned at the docks in Philadelphia, the *Rhaetia, Franconia and Prins Oskar*. The first armed troops to land in France were the 5th Regiment of the U. S. Marine Corps.

Q.—Where did the Marines first fight in France?

A.—At Chateau Thierry, in the Marne angle. They were put in during June and early July, 1918, to face the great German drive to the river Marne, and they distinguished themselves by not only succeeding in establishing an invincible defense, but by making decided advances, and especially by clearing fiercely contested points of vantage which later proved to be of great value when the big counter-offensive began.

Q.—Had other American troops distinguished themselves before this?

A.—Yes. American army troops (composed both of regulars and of the National Army or citizen troops) had done exceedingly well some months earlier in various places, and perhaps especially so in holding lines west of Montdidier after the German drive toward Amiens, March-April, 1918. But the later engagements of the Marines were at a decidedly critical time and place and the fighting was of very considerable magnitude.

Q.—How big is the Marine force?

A.—When the dispatches of 1918 first told about the Marines being in the front line, we had a Marine force of 56,545 men, and it was growing rapidly by daily enlistments all over the country. The peace strength of the Marine Corps was limited, being only 13,266 men with 426 officers at the opening of war with Germany.

Q.—Did the draft increase the Marine Corps?

A.—Neither the Navy nor the Marine Corps depended on the draft. They were recruited by voluntary enlistment. The Marine Corps has always been popular among adventurous young men because of its romantic record. Among the voluntary enlistments was a whole college battalion enlisted as one.

Q.—Are the Marines normally kept together?

A.—No. Normally they are scattered throughout the fleet and on posts throughout the world. Every capital ship (battleship, amored cruiser, etc.) carries a complement of Marines. Smaller vessels assigned to special duties in foreign waters carry Marines if there is any likelihood that men may have to be landed.

Q.—Do both sides use the same system of trenches?

A.—Practically. After the German trench-systems were severely punished by

the British and French method of pounding them for days with destructive long-range fire of almost incredible severity, the Germans did devise a certain change, by which they established the so-called "pill-box system." But except for this modification, the system is much the same on each side.

Q.—What are "pill boxes?"

A.—The "pill box" is a name given by the British to a concrete block-house introduced by the Germans, during the early part of 1917, in an endeavor to find a better method of defense against the Allies' gun-fire than the trench system. These block-houses are scattered to a considerable depth over the country to be defended and have proven to be a very effective system of defense. Most of them are garrisoned by twelve men and armed with one or more machine guns. Some of the larger ones have garrisons of as many as sixty men.

Q.—What are trench gates?

A.—The modern trench is divided into sections by gates faced with barbed wire. Their purpose is to prevent raiding parties from rushing along the trench. Often the operation of opening the gate is slow and involved so that a party of raiders shall lose too many precious moments in getting through, even if it is clear how the gate can be opened.

Q.—Are the men close together in the trenches?

A.—In very important places the soldiers may be shoulder to shoulder. In other places not so important or not open to sudden attack, the trenches may be held so thinly that there is a man only every few yards. Some trench-lines are held only by scattered machine-gun companies.

Q.—What is the difference between a machine gun and a rifle?

A.—The rifle is the great one-man weapon of war. It is mobile—that is, the man can carry it with him anywhere and he can carry a large amount of ammunition for it. He can use it quickly and easily. Its mechanism is such that a common soldier easily learns how to take care of it.

The machine gun is much heavier, requires more than one man for its efficient use, and fires such huge quantities of ammunition that that cannot be carried by the soldiers themselves, but must be transported specially. Its mechanism is more complicated and thus requires special knowledge and training.

Q.—Must soldiers at the front live in trenches all the time?

A.—No. Only the soldiers actually holding the front-lines are in trenches, and even they are not kept there for too long a time. The custom is to relieve men from trench duty as often as it can be done. The soldiers not on trench duty are well behind the front-lines, generally safely beyond all danger of gun-fire from the enemy. They live in villages, cantonments, and, sometimes, in tents—but mostly they dwell with pretty complete comfort in houses.

Q.—How do American soldiers live when training for the front?

A.—The men are generally billeted in villages, and frequently sleep in barns. The first thing they do in taking up their quarters is to police the community. Policing means, largely, cleaning up and moving or burning everything that endangers health and order, purifying the water and making sure in general of sanitary arrangements. There is nearly always a store or two selling American matches, groceries, canned things, and, in fact, pretty nearly everything a general store would carry—but no liquor.

Q.—When did our boys take over part of the front line?

A.—In February 5, 1918, there was published in the United States a statement that "the sector occupied by the American troops is northwest of Toul."

Q.—Where was this?

A.—This description showed that they were occupying a line between Pont-a-Mousson and St. Mihiel, the latter the farthest southern salient of the famous Verdun positions.

The American troops had the formidable line of Toul-Nancy-Luneville behind them—one of the greatest of the French fortification systems.

Q.—Was not this the scene of the first big fighting in the war?

A.—Early in the war the French tried to break through into Germany from the gateway of the land dominated by Nancy. Successful at first, they were forced back, and the Germans, in turn, tried to break

through this immense sector of fortifications (Verdun - Toul - Nancy - Luneville) and sweep forward into France. They made a considerable advance, actually threatening Nancy with capture. But though the French forces had met a bad defeat in the battles of August 20, 21, 1914, they succeeded in the end in holding the German forces much on the lines still occupied three years later.

Q.—When American troops took over this front line, was any German territory held by the Allies?

A.—Yes. In Alsace. South of Lorraine the French held trenches in German territory, extending from Colmar, a town in Alsace, to the Swiss border. It was a small strip, but of great sentimental and moral value to the French.

Q.—What is a forlorn hope?

A.—It is a service so desperate that few or none of the men who undertake it may hope to survive. For this reason, officers rarely order men to forlorn hope service, but call for volunteers.

A forlorn hope rarely is called for among troops who are on the offensive. It is almost always a part of a desperate defensive, such as blowing up a bridge under terrific bombardment, holding some post to delay a victorious enemy, and so on.

Now and then a victoriously advancing commander may call for forlorn hope service to attack some formidable position, knowing that the men will be destroyed but hoping that they will also destroy the enemy stronghold, and thus, by sacrificing their own lives, save the lives of many comrades.

Q.—When a trench is heavily bombarded, are the men not allowed to retreat from it?

A.—Soldiers posted in a trench must stay in it till they get direct orders to leave it. They may crouch in bomb-proof excavations within the trenches and otherwise conceal themselves from the bursting projectiles, because they know that while the shells are falling on their trench, the enemy soldiers cannot assault it. But were they to leave it, the enemy might instantly stop his fire and send his troops in. A breach thus made in even a limited section of front might affect an army-front of many miles.

Q.—Why should a successful breach in an army front imperil hundreds of miles?

A.—While a successful breach is extremely difficult to establish, as we have said, such a breach, if sufficiently wide, may let the enemy force men and guns through and expand them into army formation on the other side, thus raising a formidable menace of rear-attack.

A modern army-front cannot simply walk away from its position. Hundreds of huge cannon must be moved, and these are as heavy as industrial machinery. Thousands of other guns, lighter, but still not easily moved, must be saved from possible capture. Hundreds of tons of supplies have to be shifted. For this reason a threatened army cannot wait too long. It cannot always assure itself that the breach in its line is serious. The only absolute safety is to fall back and re-form where the enemy again may be faced by a solid and unpenetrated front.

Q.—Is it possible for men to live through a bombardment directly on the trenches?

A.—Yes. The trenches are deep but narrow, and on the side toward the enemy there is a high mound of earth or of sand-bags. No matter how accurate artillerists may be, it is impossible to aim so accurately that the shells shall actually fall and burst inside of the trenches. Most of them hit the sheltering mound or drop just in front of them. The explosion of these shells rarely does direct damage to the men in the trenches, and the greatest danger from them is caused by flying fragments of the bursting shell.

Another proportion of shells flies over the trench and bursts just beyond. These are more dangerous if they explode close to it, because the rear of the trench is not so well protected, though modern trenches do have mounds erected against this "back-fire."

Even if shells burst in the trench, however, they are not necessarily fatal to anybody, because of the bomb-proofs scattered along the trenches to give men shelter.

In addition, as the trenches are not straight, but zig-zag, a shell bursting inside of a trench cannot send its fragments through more than a limited area.

"Shell-shock" is the thing that, probably, puts more men out of commission than actual wounding or killing.

Q.—What is barrage fire?

A.—Literally it means a fire to bar men. It is an artillery method which has become possible only through the modern improvements in guns and time-fuse shells, and the use of airplanes, telephones and wireless to keep the artillerists constantly informed as to the effect of their work.

When it is decided to establish a barrage, a line of guns is so fired as to drop an incessant shower of shells along a given zone. This bursting inferno, which is kept up for as many minutes or hours as may be demanded by the particular operation, is a barrage through which no number of men can pass.

Q.—How is barrage used?

A.—A barrage may be "laid down" behind an enemy's front line, thus cutting that front line off from re-enforcements, supplies, etc. This is done by so dropping the shells that they explode continually along every communication road and on every depot of supplies. When the front line has been thus cut off, a charge by a superior number of opponents may result in the destruction or capture of all the isolated men.

Another way to use a barrage is by "advancing" it gradually—that is, the barrage first falls on a certain part of the enemy line, and the attacking troops advance just behind it. The guns then lay the barrage a little further ahead, and the attacking force advances again, and so on. This is known as "creeping barrage."

Creeping barrage aims to demolish first the enemy barbed-wire entanglements; then the enemy trenches; then the communicating trenches, and so on, thus clearing the way for the attacking troops.

If an attack is threatened on its own trenches, the artillery tries to lay down a defensive barrage—that is, it tries to make a zone of explosive fire in front of its own trenches to prevent the assailants from approaching, and if the attack is serious, it tries to lay a heavy barrage behind the assailants, for the double purpose of preventing re-enforcements and of preventing their retreat, thus making possible their capture or destruction.

Q.—What is the difference between a defeat and a rout?

A.—A defeat, even though it may be of the utmost gravity, still leaves the defeated force in some sort of coherent organization. It may not be able to fight again, but it has a chance. Even if it has no real chance left, it still remains a factor to be reckoned with. Until it is eliminated, the enemy, however victorious, has not obtained a free hand.

A rout, on the other hand, is not only an utter defeat, but it is the elimination of the defeated force. A routed force, big or little, is one that has no organization left. It has disintegrated into individuals who are fleeing in disordered multitude, leaving their military equipment on the field, and not seeking to make a stand anywhere, except as desperation may drive them.

Q.—If a soldier crawls into an enemy trench to spy, and is caught, what happens to him?

A.—If he is in the uniform of his own army, he must be treated like any other prisoner of war. If he is disguised in any way, either in civilian garb or the enemy uniform, he is subject to treatment as a spy.

Q.—Could raiders not get into a German trench with machine guns and clean it out?

A.—They could clean out only a small part, because all trenches, German and Allied, are so dug that there are no very long straight stretches. Every little while there is a sharp bend. This is done for the very purpose of preventing such an occurrence as an "enfilading fire," which is the technical term for raking a military position.

Q.—What is the meaning of "troops in reserve?"

A.—In battle only a certain proportion of troops are engaged on each side. It is one of the purposes of each commander to tempt or force his opponent to throw in all his men, while he himself holds his own men "in reserve"—that is, he keeps a great force of men safely in the rear with the object of suddenly hurling in these fresh, unwearied, unshaken men when the men of the other side are tired out.

Q.—Why would it not be better to push all the men in at once and thus strike a crushing blow in the very beginning?

A.—It would be excellent, if it could be done. Sometimes, under very unusual circumstances, a military genius does do it, and he wins a great victory. But it

cannot often be done. The geography of a battle-front, the necessity of guarding innumerable possible points of attack and so on, force generals to bring only a part of an army into actual combat at first.

But there is another big reason for not throwing in all available men at once. It is the same reason that leads a prize-fighter not to put all his strength into the first few rounds—the fear of physical exhaustion. Men become vastly exhausted in battle. They must, after a few hours, get relief or support. It has happened many times in history that victorious troops have so worn themselves out to win, that in the end they were too tired to drive the victory home, and so lost its fruits because no reserves were available.

Q.—What is shell-shock?

A.—Shell-shock is a condition of temporary mental, nervous and physical collapse caused by an explosion occurring in close proximity to the individual, or by a prolonged period of exposure in a place where there is very heavy and incessant bursting-fire.

The most usual cases of shell-shock are caused by one big explosion very close to the victim. Paralysis, mental stupor, intense sensitiveness of the superficial nerves, violent pains that often appear to have no real reason, involuntary muscular motions, deafness, sometimes blindness and dumbness—any or all of these symptoms may be observed in sufferers.

The condition first became a decidedly big hospital-fact in the present war. Much has been done to relieve it, but there still is much to learn about it. The chief line of treatment is directed toward cheering the mind of the patient and soothing the nervous condition or building it up. The fortunate fact about it appears to be that it is generally temporary. The period of recovery, however, may be very long indeed.

Q.—Is it true that soldiers have liquor given to them before going over the top?

A.—Our men apparently are not to have liquor doled out to them, but the British practice has been to give the men a "tot" of rum (the liquor made from sugar-cane syrup) before going into any difficult action and also after unusual exposure to weather.

The French are very liberal with wine, and, in fact, French soldiers drink it largely in place of water. The American army management has not laid down the principle of teetotalism as an iron-clad law, and experience will no doubt be the guide.

Q.—Do the officers go into the trenches with the soldiers?

A.—The lieutenants do almost always, to a number sufficient to maintain efficient command of the company or the detachment in each particular trench sector. The non-commissioned officers, of course, accompany their squads.

The captain of a company usually is with his men if the whole company occupies a particular sector. Otherwise he may remain on detached duty in the rear, or he may occupy a bomb-proof or other station in the trenches or behind them where he can maintain uninterrupted telephone communication with his men.

Q.—Are the men in the trenches under pretty constant gun-fire?

A.—Sometimes men may hold trenches throughout their entire tour of duty without receiving a hostile shot. Many times soldiers hold considerable extents of trenches for two or even more weeks and experience only occasional shelling. It all depends on the conditions of war at the time. Even when things are pretty active along the entire front as a whole, there will be sections of front that seem to be neglected.

Q.—Do the men in the trenches have to cook their own food?

A.—Sometimes. In extreme cases where a very heavy and sustained bombardment destroys communications, they have to fall back on the emergency rations which each modern soldier carries with him.

In the ordinary course of the trench-war, however, hot meals are delivered with notable regularity. The field-kitchens behind the trenches supply the food, and it is carried in big cans through communication trenches to the men.

Q.—Have the men in the trenches no cannon with which to defend themselves?

A.—Cannon would be of no possible use in trenches. The enemy trenches are so close to ours that machine-gun and rifle-fire make a perfect defense. Even if cannon were of any use in trenches, which they are not, it would be madness to put them there, because any drive

that succeeds in breaking through a trench anywhere would thus result in a loss of valuable artillery.

Modern artillery has such immense range that it can perfectly defend the trenches from situations so far behind them that it is absolutely out of danger of capture from any ordinary attacks.

Q.—What is the trench-mortar?

A.—This is a weapon produced by the modern trench-warfare. It is a little mortar, so light that it can be transported with ease by a couple of men; and unlike other gunnery weapons it requires comparatively little science. Practically speaking, it simply supplements the hand-thrown grenade—that is, it throws a bomb into the enemy trench in the same way in which a man would toss a hand-grenade.

Its range does not have to be much greater than that attained by a hand-thrown bomb, for it is used solely for trench-to-trench war. It shoots its big oval or sausage-shaped bomb well up into the air with a muffled boom, and the projectile describes a big curve. The bomb is fitted with a time-fuse as a rule, but may also be made to explode on impact.

Q.—Do aircraft drop many bombs into the trenches?

A.—Very few. The anti-aircraft guns force airplanes to remain as high as from 5,000 to 10,000 feet. At this height the trenches are only like a thin streak to the airman's eye. In addition, as an airplane can never stop while in the air, but must keep moving continuously and at a high speed, it is practically impossible to fix the right instant for dropping a bomb so that it will hit any small object below.

Therefore trenches are rarely badly bombed, except when some very extraordinary circumstance gives a plane the chance to swoop low and speed along the length of a trench for a sufficient distance to loose bombs with some degree of accuracy.

Q.—Have the men in trenches any shelter against the weather?

A.—Sometimes the trenches, especially where a line has been held for some time, are fitted with very comfortable underground dwellings with light and heat. But men soon become inured to outdoor exposure. City people, softened by house-living, do not realize how large a proportion of every population spends the great part of its life in exposure to all kinds of weather, not only without suffering, but actually with much better health than the city-dwellers.

Q.—How do soldiers in France get water?

A.—In the army zone, reservoirs and hydrants are erected near camps, barracks and hospitals, and tank stations spaced along the roads for the accommodation of the traveling kitchens and motor tank wagons. These hold 1,000 gallons and they bring water to the fighting line, where it is removed in kegs or skins into the trenches.

A water supply is also obtained from springs and properly fitting them out to avoid contamination. Wells are cleaned out, disinfected and provided with a pumping plant. Many new wells are driven, and where a large supply of water is required, veritable waterworks have been constructed, with pumping machines and pipe lines several miles in length. The water supply department of the French Army consists of 3,500 men and 75 officers. It has fitted out 3,800 existing wells and sunk 2,000 new ones. The total amount of piping laid amounts to 200 miles.

Q.—What is the exact technical composition of a "sector"?

A.—Technically it is that part of the front line occupied by a battalion. The organization of a sector consists of:

(1) Accessory defenses which are made to arrest and retard the enemy advancing under fire of the defense;

(2) The first line of surveillance occupied by a few men from which all ground in front can be well seen;

(3) The line of resistance occupied strongly, which must be defended whatever happens;

(4) Lines of support which are strongly organized centers, defended while new lines in the rear are being formed; all are connected by communication trenches and protected by barbed wire.

Q.—What is the first thing men do in a trench if they see enemies approaching to attack?

A.—Soldiers rarely attack a trench-line that way. A trench usually is pounded by artillery first, to destroy it and drive its defenders out, or so stun and decimate them that they cannot offer resistance to the enemy charge, which does not follow till the artillery has done its work.

Against a charge such as is suggested

the men in the trenches would direct a converging fire from all the machine guns in their line, supplemented by "sheet-fire" from their rifles, all discharged as fast as the defenders can shoot, so as to make a zone of destruction through which assailants cannot pass.

Meantime they will have telephoned or telegraphed to their headquarters in the rear, and the officers there will instantly order heavy fire from their artillery to sweep the front of the threatened trench sector.

Q.—Is No Man's Land a neutral zone?

A.—It is just the reverse. The zone between the opposing trenches is called No Man's Land because it is not possible for either side to hold it, and because no man may venture on it except at imminent risk of death. It is over this No Man's Land that the daring detachments from both sides creep out at night to make raids on the enemy lines, or to gather information.

Q.—Is the term "Jam Pot" a nickname for something else?

A.—In the very early stages of the war it was a nickname only in a partial sense. The British troops, being unprepared for hand grenade work, while the Germans were well equipped for that kind of warfare, converted jam pots and similar things into emergency grenades, loading them with explosives and tossing them into German trenches with lighted fuses attached. Now that the Allies are well supplied with regular grenades, the term remains as a nickname pure and simple.

Q.—How many kinds of hand grenades are there?

A.—So many that apparently only a few specialists in explosives can tell offhand how many varieties are being used. They are all similar, however, in the main principle: that is, whatever their shape and size may be, they are high-explosive bombs to be tossed by hand-power into enemy positions. Some are thrown like a baseball. Others are hurled from slings. Still others are attached to sticks.

The most simple are provided with a common fuse that is lit by the soldier just before he tosses the grenade. The more elaborate ones are fitted with very ingenious exploding devices, some being so-called time-fuses, others being contact devices.

The great object is to insure explosion of the bomb the moment it gets to the "right place." Slow fuses often enable the enemy to snatch a bomb when it arrives and throw it back at the men who sent it. On the other hand a fuse that discharges the grenade too swiftly may make it burst "at home."

Q.—Does the term "sapper" mean anything?

A.—It means literally a soldier who saps—that is, drives a tunnel or a trench toward an enemy position. Such an approach by digging is known as "sapping" and the trench or tunnel is called a "sap."

Sappers, miners and pioneers are among the very oldest military formations of the world. They were important parts of armies long before gunpowder was invented. The Romans, who besieged Carthage in the days of Hamilcar and Hannibal, used sapping extensively.

The modern sapper is part of the engineer corps of the army, and sappers are employed like the other arms of that service for all kinds of engineering work, from building roads and bridges to driving the old-fashioned tunnel under an enemy fortification and blowing it up.

Q.—Is the so-called fire-trench an advanced trench?

A.—No. The fire-trench is the actual front line of trenches permanently held by the regular front-line troops. It represents the true and actual battle-front. It is called "fire-trench" to distinguish it from the many subsidiary trenches of a defense system, such as communication trenches, lateral trenches, listening post trenches, etc.

Q.—Are listening posts inside of the trenches or outside?

A.—Listening posts are in No Man's Land between the trenches. They are in trenches that have been dug out toward the enemy trench, and they are as near to the foe as the conditions permit. They are elaborately surrounded with barbed wire, and are used mostly at night, when a soldier creeps into the post and listens for any sound in the enemy lines that may warn him of an intended raid, of any movement or transfer of troops, etc.

Q.—Why do men at the front call an unexploded shell a "dud"?

A.—"Dud" is a slang English word, meaning something the same as the American slang-word "dub." It was a

natural thing to apply the term to a shell that fails to explode after it strikes.

Q.—If two armies not quite equal in numbers meet, must the smaller one always take the defensive?

A.—If the armies are well matched in quality and in natural positions, the smaller one must take the defensive almost always, but not always. It depends on the commanding officers. If these are well matched, the larger army will usually force the offense, thus leaving nothing but defense to the smaller. But a superior general often assumes a successful offensive with a smaller army; and, vice versa, an inferior general will prosecute an offensive with his larger army so unskilfully that as the battle develops he will find himself forced into the defensive.

Q.—What would be the military advantage to either side of going through Switzerland?

A.—If it were not for the fact that Switzerland is prepared to defend her neutrality bloodily, a surprise attack through the northwestern corner of Switzerland, where it abuts on the German and French lines, might be of advantage, for the assailant could hope to push so big an army through that his enemy's whole front would have to fall back.

Thus German forces pouring through that corner might force an abandonment of the entire Vosges line and leave the French Verdun line critically "in the air."

A French invasion of Germany through that part of Switzerland might force the Germans to abandon all of Alsace.

Considered in practical detail, however, such an attack would present huge difficulties to either side. The troops and their vast lines of supplies would have only very narrow mountain valleys to pass through, and either side could probably block the narrow outlets.

Q.—How can an American send gifts to soldiers at the front?

A.—By parcel post or express, but only if sender can show a written request from the soldier, approved by his commanding officer. Tie parcel securely, but do not seal, as it must be inspected.

The sender's name and address should be written plainly on the upper left hand corner.

The address of the soldier must be as follows:

JOHN SMITH,
Company C, 9th Infantry,
American Expeditionary Forces,
France.

The exact location or station of the company must not be given on the address.

Q.—Must foreign tariff duty be paid on gifts sent to men abroad?

A.—The following announcement has been received through the State Department of the conditions whereby gift parcels containing dutiable goods sent by parcel post may be delivered free of duty in Great Britain, when intended for officers and men of the U. S. Army and Navy serving in the United Kingdom, for soldiers of American nationality serving in the British or Canadian forces, or for American medical officers serving in British military or base hospitals:

"The British Board of Customs announce the following conditions whereby gift parcels containing dutiable goods may be delivered free of duty: Such parcels intended for officers and men of United States Navy in United Kingdom should be addressed for delivery on board ship in which addressee is serving; when intended for members of American Army in United Kingdom, should be addressed to regimental address of recipient; when intended for soldiers of American nationality in British or Canadian armies or for American medical officers serving in British military or base hospitals, should be addressed in care of Committee for American Soldiers and Sailors of the American Red Cross, 154 New Bond street, London, England, which committee will verify right of addressee to duty-free concession and arrange for delivery of parcels. Dutiable goods must be specifically described as tobacco, cigarettes, chocolate, etc. Foregoing relates solely to dutiable goods imported by parcels post."

Q.—What postage must our men abroad pay on mail to America?

A.—Under an Act of Oct. 3, 1917, all troops, sailors and marines of the United States serving abroad are entitled to free postage on their mail back to the United States provided that this mail bears the sender's name, etc., in the upper left hand

corner or bears other evidence to indicate that it is from a soldier or sailor.

Q.—What is meant by "tagging" a soldier?

A.—All armies engaged in the war, with the possible exception of the Russians, supply their men with identification tags, generally worn on a string passing around the neck. Modern warfare is so terrible that the ordinary means of identification fail completely, and if it were not for these tags families would be caused untold misery because of inability to learn the fate of their loved ones. The British soldier is provided with a circular aluminum tag containing his draft number, name, regiment and religion. The French are using a metal tag made in duplicate and capable of being split. This allows one half of the tag to be left with the dead body while the other half is forwarded to the proper authorities for checking purposes. The Germans make use of a similar tag. The American Navy has a tag which is decidedly unique, in that it carries the thumbprint of the bearer.

Q.—What is the cost of equipping an American infantryman?

A.—The War Department states that the cost of equipping the average soldier is $156.71. Of this amount $101.62 is expended for clothing, $7.73 for eating utensils, and $47.36 for fighting equipment.

Q.—What are the food requirements of a large army?

A.—For an army of 500,000 men two and a half million pounds of food must be allowed daily. In a month an army of this size will use thirteen million pounds of beef, fifteen million pounds of potatoes, one million pounds of coffee and three million pounds of sugar.

Q.—Is the Government employing women telephone operators to go abroad?

A.—Women telephone operators to be sent abroad by the War Department will wear a distinctive uniform and will be considered from a military standpoint as in a similar position to the members of the British Women's Auxiliary Corps, according to information given out by the U. S. Signal Corps. Wives of Army officers and enlisted men now in Europe or about to go will not be accepted for the unit, it is stated. It is very probable that a large number of women will be required as General Pershing has found it impossible to obtain satisfactory operators with the necessary linguistic requirements. To become eligible to this unit women must be between twenty-three and thirty-five years of age, with a few possible exceptions in case of maximum age. They must be in good health, and speak both French and English with ease. It is preferred that they have had some experience in telephone switchboard operating, as even in cases of experienced operators it has been found necessary to give some preliminary training in this country before sending them abroad. Salaries range from $60 to $125 a month, with allowances of rations and quarters, the same as now accorded to Army nurses.

Q.—What is meant by the "Hindenburg Line?"

A.—The Hindenburg Line is a system of German entrenchments on the western war front, so called after the commander of the German Field Forces, who established it after the Somme fighting in 1916. This line, which was maintained through 1917 and until open warfare suddenly began in 1918, consisted of three main sections, the northern end being the "Wotan" line, the center the "Siegfried" line and the southern end the "Albrecht" line. It had the general shape of a crescent, with the horns at the North Sea on the north and the Aisne River on the south.

Q.—How were American troops placed at first?

A.—Early in the campaign the Allied front was divided into three sections, a British front from the North Sea to the Oise River, a distance of about 125 miles, a French front from the Oise to Verdun, some 150 miles; and an American front from Verdun to the Swiss frontier. The plans provided for an independent system of railroads from each front to certain selected seaports, making distinct lines of communication from the sea to the firing line. The American front generally was designated as the "Lorraine Front."

Q.—What are the duties of a company clerk when his company is sent to France?

A.—Ordinarily a company clerk would perform his duties away from the firing line. The exigencies of the service, however, especially in war time, demand many departures from ordinary rules and

customs and a company clerk going abroad may be required to perform duty anywhere.

Q.—How many shoes does a soldier need?

A.—General Pershing has requested shipment of 18,590 pairs of shoes for each 25,000 men monthly, which is approximately nine pairs of shoes per man per year. "This quantity," said Secretary Baker, "is in excess of actual consumption, and is being used by General Pershing to build up a reserve for all troops in France. When such a supply is accumulated, the quantities will be reduced."

The Quartermaster-General's Department had on hand before the end of February, 1918, and due on outstanding contracts 7,564,000 field shoes and 7,873,000 marching shoes. By July, 1918, 27,249,000 pairs of shoes had been bought for the entire army, at home and overseas.

Q.—Are there accurate figures showing the magnitude of general army supplies?

A.—Yes, and the magnitude is astounding. Between April, 1917, when we entered war, and August 1, 1918 (15 months), the War Department bought and delivered 55,958,000 pairs woolen socks, 10,507,000 pairs woolen breeches, 9,000,000 woollen coats, 5,377,000 overcoats, and 4,373,000 spiral puttees (leggings).

There were purchased 9,860 motor ambulances, 17,988 motor trucks, 3,420 passenger cars, 27,000 motorcycles, and 25,874 side-cars for motorcycles.

Animals amounted to 237,007 horses and 129,385 mules. Of these all were bought in the United States except 58,093 horses and 5,745 mules which were bought in France.

Q.—What extra army pay is allowed for foreign service?

A.—Foreign service pay is twenty per cent of the pay of the grade without the war increase. For instance, an enlisted man who receives $15 on his first enlistment, if serving in France, will receive $3 for foreign service pay and $15 war increase, a total of $33.

Q.—How many soldiers voted in the first election under arms?

A.—In the election of November, 1917, the entire military vote (cast by recruits in national encampments at home, citizen soldiers in France, and citizen sailors on naval vessels) was 50,475.

Q.—How much does it cost to feed a soldier?

A.—A little less than 40 cents a day in the camps in the United States. The figures from one camp, Camp Devans in Massachusetts, show that when the men were first assembling there the cost for each man per day was 40½ cents. In September, 1917, when the supply had been organized thoroughly the cost was 38¾ cents.

Q.—How can soldiers in France get eyeglasses if they break the ones they have?

A.—There are optical units with the army. A base plant is provided with elaborate optical machinery and workmen, capable of turning out several hundred pairs of glasses a day with all the accuracy of an optical manufacturing establishment at home. Automobile units will work immediately behind the lines for emergency repairs, fitting, etc.

Q.—How many soldiers can a ship carry?

A.—The old estimates used to be one man to every two tons of cargo capacity. This was the European army usage. There has been some dispute in America since the troops began to go over-seas, because some experts hold that two tons is not a sufficient allowance for a modern soldier with the great amount of equipment and supply that must accompany troops. The Secretary of War adhered to the two-ton calculation. Others asserted that the amount needed for each man was five tons, but it may be said that this is extreme. It is evident that some of the experts who hold to the five-ton calculation are figuring not simply on the acutal transport per man, but also on the tonnage needed to continue sending supplies after the man has landed in France.

Q.—Does a soldier's outfit actually weigh two tons?

A.—Not at all. "Tons" means space, not weight. This "tonnage" measurement of merchant ships really was not invented by sailors or ship-builders. It was devised by tax-collectors. In the days

of the Stuarts in England it was decided by that habitually hard-up government to levy port taxes and dues of all sorts on shipping. To ascertain what each vessel should pay, the tax collectors devised the scheme of taxing each according to the number of "tuns" (great hogsheads) that it could carry. These tuns probably were selected because at that time wine, tobacco, and many other cargoes were carried in tuns. Certain measurements of cargo space were laid down, and, according to this "tunnage" the ship was taxed.

Q.—What are corps troops?

A.—They are an addition to the army corps devised to meet the necessities of warfare on the French front. When the five-division corps was organized, this body of "corps troops" was added. Corps troops are made up of artillery units, engineers and many other types of service battalions, and their duty is to maintain the line of communication for their own corps. They comprise about 30,000 men.

Q.—What is a line of communication?

A.—In the first place, you must understand that it is a "line" only technically. Actually it is the system of roads and depots situated safely behind an army, from and over which there must go an unending stream of supplies to the troops in front. An American field army in France (which would consist of five army corps) must have from 125,000 to 130,000 men (corps troops) to maintain all the avenues of supply. As a matter of fact, General Pershing's "lines of communication" extend from the Lorraine trenches clear across France to the ports where the ocean transport service lands the supplies from America.

Q.—What "lines of communication" had we built in France?

A.—By the summer of 1918 we had developed enormous ports in France capable of handling 750,000 tons a month. American foresting organizations had gone into the French woods, erected sawmills shipped "knocked-down" from America, and built docks and other facilities.

Fourteen regiments and nineteen battalions railway engineers (over 45,000 Americans) were engaged in railroad construction and operation in France. Nine regiments of railway engineers had been in France since August, 1917.

There were produced by August, 1918, for the railroad operations of the War Department in France more than 22,000 standard gauge freight cars, and more than 1,600 standard gauge locomotives in addition to purchases of cars and locomotives abroad.

A double line of railroad communication had been secured from the French by army engineers, extending from the coast of France to the battlefront. It included the construction of hundreds of miles of trackage for yards and the necessary sidings, switches, etc.

Q.—How will American artillery be repaired in France?

A.—A huge artillery base was started early in 1918 to cost approximately 25 million dollars. The works were planned to have a capacity for re-lining more than 800 big guns a month (putting in new bores and rifling to replace the core worn out by firing). There was also to be a works for repairing 50,000 small arms and machine guns a month with a reloading plant to re-load about 100,000 artillery cartridges a day. To do all this (and to make the repairs on motor vehicles and the other equipment), more than a hundred buildings were necessary.

Q.—How was our army off for artillery?

A.—Sixteen plants were built here, many of them "from the ground up," to produce heavy artillery of every type. The first of four government-owned shell-fitting plants had begun to produce by August, 1918, in addition to many private plants already long engaged in quantity production. Motorization of field artillery was well under way. A 5-ton armored truck had been developed in 1918 to haul 4.1-inch howitzers, weighing 9,000 pounds, over rough country. Approximately $90,000,000 was being spent to produce nitrates for explosives. The plan for our artillery operations in France was colossal. It included everything from trench mortars to 16-inch monsters.

TROOP TRANSPORT OVER SEAS

Q.—Did American troops go to Europe immediately after war was declared?

A.—The first American force of any size was sent in June, two months after the American Declaration of War, which was made April 6, 1917.

Q.—Were the first troops sent in warships?

A.—No. They were sent in merchant vessels fitted out as transports, and armed only lightly with a few light, quick-firing naval guns, firing 5- and 6-inch shells.

Q.—How can such transports defend themselves?

A.—They are expected to defend themselves only in a pinch. They are protected by warships.

Q.—Why could not troops be sent in battleships?

A.—Because there is not enough room on warships to carry any considerable number of soldiers. In addition, the function of a warship is to seek for and meet an enemy, whereas the function of a transport is to avoid him.

Q.—How do warships defend transports?

A.—Warships defend transports against the attack of enemy warships by convoying them. To do this, the transports, steaming in line or in double line, are surrounded by cordons of warships of different types.

Far in advance, and sweeping the ocean on both sides, sometimes as far as three hundred miles away, are the swift scout cruisers, whose mission it is to find the enemy and wireless the warning to their own ships.

Surrounding the transports and keeping them always in sight, are the heaviest ships, the battle-cruisers and dreadnaughts. It is their business to meet an attacking foe at such a distance from the transports, that he cannot come within range of them. Forming separate cordons are swift, light cruisers and destroyers—some ranging far over the seas to scout, others staying close to the transports to protect them against destroyer attack, which is particularly to be feared at night.

Q.—Has not the submarine changed the convoy system?

A.—Yes. The fact that the big ships of the German Navy cannot take the sea is what has made cordons of cruisers and battleships unnecessary for our transports. Against submarines alone these big vessels are not needed, and, indeed, would be useless.

As the only menace to our transports comes from submarines, the convoying vessels may consist wholly of destroyers, whose greatest value is their speed. Owing to this speed, a limited number of destroyers can establish a very intensified patrol around quite a large fleet of transports.

As they have speeds ranging from 28 to 36 miles (statute) an hour, it is calculable that a submarine showing its periscope exactly between two destroyers five miles apart, would have both of them down on it in exactly five minutes, if they were thirty-mile boats.

Q.—How can destroyers find submarines?

A.—Only by continued cruising and watching. There are only two factors that are really in the destroyers' favor. One is that the submarine naturally tries to lie on the surface (for resting its men, replenishing its air-supply, and re-charging its electric motors) whenever the commander thinks it safe. The other factor is that a submarine cannot successfully attack a vessel without, at least, getting a glimpse of it from the surface. That means that the submarine must show its periscope, and, furthermore, must leave a noticeable wake as it moves along close under the surface.

Q.—What is the periscope?

A.—It is, in effect, a great eye at the top of a mast-like tube, about 5 inches in diameter. This eye is a very powerful lens, and when the periscope tube has emerged from the water, the watchers in the still submerged submarine see a reflected image of any vessels within the range of sight. The powerful lens at the top is so made that it gets a maximum amount of view. The observer in

the submarine can turn it in all directions. The most modern submarines have a very wonderful "all-around" periscope, which reflects a view of the whole encircling water-world in all directions. An elaborate system of lenses within the tube reflect this image into the observation room of the submarine.

Q.—Is not the periscope a very small object?

A.—Very small, and its visibility to others varies according to conditions. In a very smooth sea it sometimes shows up with surprising distinctness. In rough water, or when the sun happens to be wrong, it is very hard to see, being only about 5 inches in diameter.

Q.—Is there no other way to detect a submarine?

A.—Yes. When a submerged submarine has come so close to the surface that it can protrude its periscope, it creates a noticeable commotion on the top of the water. The periscope tube in itself makes a wake, and a bigger disturbance still is caused by the movement of the large hull under the surface.

Q.—Can the submarine lie still and await its prey?

A.—No. A submarine that has been brought near the surface to make an attack, cannot lie still in that position. It must keep moving, if it is to retain its level. To lie motionless, a submarine must either come wholly to the surface or it must so fill its ballast tanks as to sink. If a submarine with periscope protruding were to stop its propeller, which, with its balancing fins, keeps it in a desired depth, it would bob up like a cork and be a big mark. A submarine, even when submerged, never has so much water ballast aboard as to destroy its buoyancy. It must retain its tendency to float to the surface, otherwise it would be bound to sink.

Q.—How long is the periscope tube?

A.—From 18 to 20 feet in the average submarine. The submarine thus can sight a ship while it still is that far below the surface.

Q.—Does the submarine sink if its tube is shot away?

A.—No. The only effect is to make it "blind"—that is, without a periscope the crew of the submarine would have to bring their craft to the surface so that they could see through the glass-windowed conning-tower if they wanted to attack ships. But the loss of the periscope does not prevent them from navigating under water and they can, therefore, run away submerged until they get clear of an enemy zone. After that they can run on the surface when no foe is near, and so get home. But they can do no more torpedoing from submerged position. Thus, though they can still manage to get back to port, their capacity for harm would be gone.

Q.—Why not simply shoot away their periscopes and thus make them harmless?

A.—That is one of the various things the submarine-hunters try to do. But it is very difficult. It cannot be done except now and then by lucky chance. The mark is too small. Besides, as we know now, the submarines have mechanics who can make remarkable repairs. Besides, modern submarines have spare periscopes. Every submarine nowadays has at least two, and it is understood that the very latest German submarines have more.

Q.—When the periscope protrudes, will exploding shells sink the submarine?

A.—Twenty feet of water, or much less, make a powerful cushion against explosion. While a good part of the shock is transmitted through the water, a greater part of the explosive violence goes in the lines of least resistance; that is, the air. In addition, there is the immense difficulty of hitting exactly that part of the water under which the submarine is moving. There comes, too, the fact that shells impinge on the sea at an angle, and this makes many of them "ricochet"—that is, they bound, much as a tennis ball does.

Q.—What do the soldiers on a transport do when a torpedo hits?

A.—The soldiers are, of course, drilled every day in putting on the life preservers, and hastening to the lifeboats, which generally hold about 48 men each. Each man goes to a particular boat and sits in a certain seat. The signal to take to the boats is five short blasts on the ship's whistle. Each lifeboat is in command of

an officer, and absolute order and silence are imposed on all.

Q.—What happens when the explosive shell strikes the water?

A.—A great deal depends upon the shape of the shell and the angle at which it strikes. The shells in general use have been inclined to bound from the water into the air, especially when the water has been smooth, and the shells struck the water at an angle of less than 10 degrees. Sometimes these shells have traveled for a straight mile after bounding before striking the water again. A shell designed to overcome this tendency, and known as a diving shell, has been devised by American naval engineers.

Q.—How long does it take a ship to make a round-trip to France?

A.—It ought to take big, modern ships, such as the requisitioned German *Vaterland* and others, only about three weeks to take a load of men and supplies to France and get back to an American port. As a matter of fact, however, the undertakings are so great that it has taken 40 days and more to make a round trip. Aside from the congestion, the faster ships are held down in speed by the necessity of taking the rate of speed on a given trip that the whole convoy must adopt, which is, of course, the speed of the slowest ship in it. By August, 1918, we had cut the time for a round trip to about a month under favorable circumstances.

Q.—What is a depth-bomb?

A.—It is the best device so far found for fighting the submarine. Depth-bombs are bombs loaded with 200 or 300 pounds of very high explosive, generally trinitrotoluol. They are carried in a special apparatus at the stern of ships that hunt submarines, and they are so adjusted that they can be dropped into the sea instantly by pulling a lever.

Q.—How are they used?

A.—When a destroyer or other submarine-hunting vessel sights a periscope, it races toward the spot at full speed, generally firing as it goes. While the submarine generally manages to submerge before the patrol-ship can reach it, there is almost always a surface disturbance, due to the motion of the under-water craft. If the patrol vessel can reach the spot in reasonably good time, there is a fair chance to ascertain with some degree of accuracy where the submarine is. The bombs are dropped then, and they explode under water.

Q.—Suppose the depth-bomb does not hit the submarine?

A.—It will explode anyway. Depth-bombs are provided with an appliance that is set to go off automatically at any desired depth. As the force of the explosion under water is enormous, a submarine may be damaged sufficiently to sink it if the bomb explodes anywhere within one hundred feet of it.

Q.—What is a smoke-box?

A.—It is a box pierced with holes and filled with chemicals. When it is desired to screen a vessel from a submarine, the box is thrown overboard. Water rushes in and the chemicals immediately produce a dense smoke, which hides the ship exactly as if it had entered a fog bank.

Q.—Is it true that the British lost hardly any soldiers at sea during the war?

A.—They had astoundingly few losses. At the end of January, 1918, it was announced in England on the authority of a naval authority (unnamed) that since the beginning of the war only 9 British transports had been sunk, and that the total loss of life was only 2,000. In that time 11,000,000 soldiers had been transported for greater or shorter distances. The bulk of this huge transportation figure, of course, is produced by the troops that were moved back and forth across the English Channel.

Q.—Did we lose any troops at sea?

A.—The losses were astoundingly small. July 1, 1918, the Secretary of War reported: "The total number of our troops lost at sea and casualties is 8,165, and of these, by reason of the superbly efficient protection which the navy has given our transport system, only 291 have been lost at sea."

Q.—Did we lose any transports?

A.—Three, but their men were saved with exception of the number noted. The losses to August 1, 1918, were *Antilles*, torpedoed October 17, 1917; *Zaanland*, torpedoed May 13, 1918; *President Lincoln*, torpedoed some time later; *Mount Vernon*, torpedoed in early September, 1918, with loss of only 35 men.

MAN UNDER WATER
(The Submarine)

Q.—Who invented the first submarine?

A.—So far as is known the first submarine was built by an American named Bushnell, in 1775. It was a one-man affair, manually propelled, and was just large enough to hold the navigator. It was built of wood, and was submerged by admitting water, which was pumped out when the occupant desired to come to the surface again. The air in the boat would support life for thirty minutes. Bushnell used his boat during the American War of Independence, and tried to attach a bomb to the bottom of the British warship *Eagle*. It, however, failed to explode. Fulton, also an American, and the originator of the steamboat, devoted some time to submarine boats. He used manual propulsion, but, by making use of compressed air, he was able to stay beneath the water for four hours. Directly encouraged by Napoleon, he built a boat for France in 1801.

Q.—Did Americans ever use submarines in war?

A.—Many submarines, all manually propelled, were built during the American Civil War, but Holland, in 1877, was the first to build a really efficient submarine, mechanically propelled. He, too, was an American, so that we can truthfully say that the submarine was an American invention. The French did more to develop the craft than any other people, but the original idea was not theirs. The internal combustion engine made the submarine possible, just as it made possible the aeroplane and Zeppelin.

Q.—How big are English submarines?

A.—The latest pre-war British type, the F class, of which there were eight built, or building, in 1914, has a displacement of 1,200 tons, 5,000 horsepower, a surface speed of 20 knots, and a submerged speed of 12 knots. They have six torpedo tubes, and two quick-firing guns. The AE1 and AE2, which were lost, were 800 tons, and had engines of 1,750 horsepower, which gave them a surface speed of 16 knots. Submerged, they could do 10 knots. They had four torpedo tubes and two quick-firers. They were 176 feet long and 23 feet diameter. The latest French vessels, though smaller than the huge Fs, have almost all eight torpedo tubes. Particulars of the German submarines are not available, but they are, at least, as large and as powerful as our own.

Q.—When did we build our first modern submarine?

A.—Congress made an appropriation in March, 1893, for building an experimental boat, and Holland obtained the contract in competition with other inventors who submitted designs and bids. It was not until 1895, however, that he was able to begin construction of the first submarine, named *Plunger*. It was designed for steam power on the surface and electric power submerged, and was launched in 1897, but by that time Holland had so many improved ideas that he left the *Plunger* unfinished and built a new boat—*Holland No. 8*. Again he made improvements and replaced the second boat with *Holland No. 9*, which was launched in 1898, and became the American navy's first submarine.

Q.—What is the Diesel engine?

A.—It is the most successful type of internal combustion engine using heavy oil. It can be driven with ordinary petroleum, and does not require the highly explosive oils used in motor car and aeroplane engines. The main difference between this engine and other heavy-oil engines which preceded it, is in the fact that no external combustion is applied, and no actual explosion takes place. It has to operate at much higher pressure than any other internal combustion engines, and this caused some alarming accidents in the early days of its use. The present machines are safe and easy to operate. Owing to the perfect combustion of the oil there is hardly any dirt or smell, and very little waste of power. Less than one-half pint of crude oil gives one brake horsepower. It is the invention of a German, Otto Diesel, who committed suicide, under peculiar circumstances, and it has been greatly improved during the war. It is used in the German submarines. Diesels are already consider-

ably used in auxiliary sailing ships, and several very successful Diesel motor ships have made voyages as long as 5,000 miles.

Q.—What is the very latest German submarine like?

A.—Rear-Admiral Degouy, of the French Navy, who is one of the leading naval experts of the world, gave some account of them in the *Revue des Deux Mondes,* published in Paris. He said that there is a submersible armed with a veritable "armored battery," constructed over a nearly cylindrical shell. "This battery, provided with a number (as yet unascertained) of guns of 120—perhaps even of 150—millimeters (5 or 6 in.)—would be flush with the surface of the sea, and the part of the shell unprotected with armor would be covered by the water. All that would be necessary would be to defend that portion of the submarine above the water against the weak guns of merchantmen armed for defense...I shall speak now of the 2,000-ton submarine, which certainly has been put in service, probably at the same time as the commercial submarine *Deutschland,* whose tonnage is no less. Judging from the characteristics which are attributed to this new craft, it will readily be seen that we have here a deep-sea cruiser most acceptable for operating along the Allies' lines of communication with America. These are the details: Length, 85 meters over all; four Diesel motors of 7,000 horsepower; speed of 22 knots (14 when submerged); ability to cover 6,500 sea miles on the surface (in other words, twice the distance across the Atlantic); capacity for fresh water and provisions enough to last six or eight weeks; armament consisting of 8 torpedo tubes for sixteen 55-centimeter torpedoes, 50 automatic mines, 4 medium-sized guns (perhaps of 150 millimeters, perhaps of 120), adapted for firing against aircraft; upper bridge lightly armoured; two boats; fifty men in the crew, together with five officers, including two mechanicians."

Q.—Have we anything like the same number of submarines as Germany?

A.—We have not, and in this war we do not need them. The German object in submarine warfare is destruction of merchant tonnage, and for this purpose they need as big a fleet of under-water boats as they can possibly turn out. America and the Allies have for their stategic object the destruction of enemy warships and nothing else, if these ever come out of their "holes" to fight.

Submarines are of only limited value for fighting other submarines, and the work can be done far better by destroyers. Therefore, the American Navy can limit its submarine fleet to the numbers actually desirable for operations against warships. However, we have a decidedly imposing fleet. It numbered more than 75 in 1917 before we entered war, and it has been heavily increased.

Q.—Have we more than one kind of submarine?

A.—Yes. We have two kinds—the smaller submarine, known as a coast defense submarine, and the larger sea-going kind, which is known as a fleet submarine, because it is designed to accompany a fleet in sea operations.

Q.—Are any American submarines equal to the biggest German ones?

A.—We have applied the lessons learned during the war, but the details are naturally not things to publish, though most naval students know pretty well what the United States is accomplishing. Before the war began we had already started the construction of many under-water vessels, which were twice the size of anything that ever had existed in American fleets before then.

These big fleet submarines were almost 300 feet long, and they were of 1,000 to 1,200 tons and more, practically equalling in tonnage some of our modern destroyers. They were designed to carry enough fuel (oil) to go from 6,000 to 7,000 miles on the surface and 3,000 miles submerged, with speed close to 20 knots (22½ statute miles) on the surface (by oil-driven motor), and 12 to 14 knots under the surface (by electric motor).

They were armored, carried batteries of at least three 4-inch rifled cannon, and had ten torpedo tubes.

Q.—What made the German use of submarines hideous?

A.—They destroyed ships without warning, or, at best, if they gave warning, set crew and passengers adrift, in small boats, sometimes at a great distance from land. Thus they regularly violated international law and humanity; while in special cases (particularly with the crews of the Q-boats or decoy craft) they committed barbarities of "frightfulness" which horrified the world.

Q.—Did British submarines perform notable exploits?

A.—The British submarine E-9 got almost under the guns of Heligoland September 13, 1914, and torpedoed the German light cruiser *Hela* (2,000 tons) practically in the fortress zone. But the most notable exploit (and probably the most brilliant submarine exploit ever performed) was the exploit of the British B-11 which, on December 11, 1914, made its way into the Dardanelles, passing under five rows of mines! This daring submarine deed resulted in the torpedoing of the Turkish battleship *Messoudieh*, 10,000 tons, actually inside of the land and sea defenses of Turkey.

Q.—What was the enemy's chief success?

A.—Probably the most spectacular instance of the fighting powers of the submarine was furnished in the torpedoing of three big British cruisers by one submarine, which attacked and destroyed them in turn, early in the war.

The British ships were all of the same type—armored cruisers of 12,000 tons each. Their names were *Aboukir, Cressy,* and *Hogue* (names commemorating three famous British victories). They were operating toward the German North Sea base of Kiel on September 22, 1914, when the German U-29 struck one with a torpedo. The others tried to stand by, and were torpedoed in swift succession and sunk.

Q.—How many battleships did submarines sink during the war?

A.—Up to the beginning of 1918, the battleships listed as submarine losses were: *Formidable,* 15,000 tons, torpedoed January 1, 1915, in the North Sea; *Goliath,* 13,000 tons, sunk May 12, 1915, Dardanelles; *Triumph,* 12,000 tons, sunk May 25, 1915, Dardanelles; *Majestic,* 15,000 tons, sunk May 27, 1915, in Dardanelles; *Cornwallis,* 14,000 tons, sunk September 1, 1917, in Mediterranean.

These were the British losses, and do not count in such losses as the *Audaeious,* which was sunk mysteriously, but probably not by a submarine.

The French had lost the battleship *Bouvet* 12,000 tons, sunk March 18, 1915, at the Dardanelles; and the *Suffern,* 13,000 tons, sunk November 26, 1916, off Lisbon.

The Italians had lost no battleships by submarine action, though they lost a number of large armored cruisers, as did the French and British. Italian battleship losses were due to explosion and mines.

The Germans, having kept their fleet in hiding, had lost only an armored cruiser and three light cruisers, all submarined in the Baltic in 1915. The Austrians have, apparently, lost only one cruiser to submarines. The Turks lost the *Messoudieh,* and the battleship *Kyehr-Ed-Din,* torpedoed in the Sea of Marmora Sept. 8, 1915.

Q.—Can submarines fight submarines?

A.—Not when submerged, though towards the end of 1917 they were being more and more employed to locate the enemy. They can, of course, fight each other with guns and torpedoes on the surface, but that is only like other craft. Submerged, they cannot fight each other, because the crew of submarines cannot see under water. It is true that the conning-towers have glazed look-out places, but even in clear water the density of the water-world is such that men can see only a few yards. It is conceivable that two submarines might, by guess and luck, blunder into each other, and try to use torpedoes; but it is a remote possibility.

Q.—Are duels under seas likely in the future?

A.—There remains a chance that sound-transmitting apparatus may be so highly perfected that a submarine can find its prey by sound, and succeed in determining its whereabouts even though it remains invisible. In that case, there may some day be under-water hunts by and of submarines.

It is the dream, of course, of naval inventors to discover some way to make fairly extended sight possible under water. This would make the submarine more than doubly as dangerous to surface ships as it now is, for then it might approach a ship without showing its periscope at all. But so far there has been nothing to indicate the probability of this.

Q.—Can submarines rest on bottom?

A.—Yes, if the water is deep or quiet enough so that no sea-motion reaches them, to make them "pump"—that is, to pound.

Q.—Were the American destroyers really effective in the war-zone?

A.—Very effective, but not, as the American people first assumed, through destroying submarines. The effectiveness was by patrol, by covering the war-zone with constantly cruising watching vessels of vast speed, and thus limiting both the time and the radius of action of the submarines sharply.

Q.—Did our destroyers not sink many submarines?

A.—In January, 1918, Commander J. K. Taussig, U. S. Navy, who commanded the first American destroyer squadron that crossed the sea, made a public address in New York, describing the work done by these vessels during seven months of war. The facts that he gave showed that destruction of submarines was only a part of the real task and importance of the anti-submarine patrol. He said that the effective system (1) was a convoying cordon of destroyers to defend the convoyed vessels against such submarines as came to them to attack; and (2) an offensive patrol of destroyers to sweep the seas looking for submarines and attacking them wherever found.

Q.—How about the many reports of destroyed submarines?

A.—Commander Taussig said in reference to this matter:

"I cannot say that we sank many submarines. The submarine, I found, was a very difficult bird to catch. He has tremendous advantage over the surface craft. In the first place, he always sees you first. As he was not after destroyers, he avoided us wherever he could. That is, if he saw a destroyer on the horizon, the submarine always went the other way."

Q.—Did the Commander say that none had been sunk?

A.—He said: "When we saw a submarine, which sometimes happened frequently, and, at other times, might not happen during several weeks, we would immediately go for him full speed, and open fire with our guns in the hope of getting in a shot before he submerged, but he always submerged very quickly. Only once did my vessel, in seven months, actually succeed in firing at a submarine. He then went down after the fifth shot was fired. At that time he was five miles away."

Q.—Is the torpedo the submarine's only weapon?

A.—No. Modern submarines carry guns on deck, which are stowed in watertight depressions when submerged. But against troop transports their only weapon is the torpedo, because, in order to attack a transport by gun-fire, they would have to come to the surface and thus would inevitably be sunk by the convoying vessels.

Q.—Just what is a torpedo? Is it anything like the shell fired from a gun?

A.—The torpedo is a shell and a craft combined—that is, it acts like an explosive shell when it strikes its mark, but, instead of being fired at the mark, it actually propels itself, like a little boat.

Q.—What does it look like?

A.—Like a cigar, if you can imagine a polished steel cigar from eighteen to twenty feet long, and weighing rather more than a ton, the very big ones weighing 3,000 pounds.

Q.—Why is it so long? Does it carry such a huge amount of explosive?

A.—No. It does carry a pretty big load of explosive, but its great length is due to the elaborate machinery that it contains.

Q.—Where does it carry the explosive?

A.—In its pointed steel snout, which is known as the warhead. The full-service torpedo carries 250 pounds of gun-cotton there.

Q.—Where is the machinery?

A.—In its long body behind the explosive. It is a beautifully devised little turbine engine that works with compressed air, and gives the torpedo a speed as high as forty miles an hour so long as the compressed air supply holds out.

Q.—How long a time is that?

A.—Long enough to drive a torpedo through the sea for as much as four miles—quite long enough, therefore, to

hit its mark, for a torpedo generally is fired at a mark very much inside of that distance.

Q.—How is the torpedo fired from the ship?

A.—It is fired, or, rather, propelled from the ship by a blast of compressed air, or a very light powder charge, that does nothing further than to toss it into the sea.

Q.—Does the torpedo always point in the right direction when it strikes the water?

A.—It generally does, but it does not need to. The ingenious machinery within it is so set that it steers the weapon toward the target for which it was adjusted.

Q.—And will it maintain that direction?

A.—Not always. Sometimes a big wave may so strike it that it "deflects," that is, turns aside.

Q.—When a torpedo deflects, what happens?

A.—The torpedo turns back to its original direction automatically, because it is fitted with a gyroscope that keeps it perfectly true or forces it back continually to the original true direction.

Q.—Then the torpedo really is not a projectile at all?

A.—No. It is really a little automatic torpedo boat.

Q.—How does it explode?

A.—It explodes when it hits a ship. There is a firing-pin in its tip, and this detonates a small quantity of fulminate of mercury, one of the most sensitive and violent explosives known. The detonation of this, in turn, explodes the gun-cotton.

Q.—Does the torpedo not have to pierce the ship?

A.—No. It is not powerful enough to do so. It is the explosion of the gun-cotton outside of the ship that blows a hole into it. The water, being non-compressible, forms a solid cushion, and this drives the full force of the explosion against the vessel.

Q.—How did the Germans manage to turn out enough torpedoes?

A.—Their apparent ability to produce all that the U-boats needed was a constant marvel to naval experts of the world, who knew how much extremely fine material is needed for a single one. However, it was known that German submarine commanders were extremely careful to conserve torpedo supply. Extraordinarily strict regulations governed their use. It is understood that every commander had to account in detail for each torpedo, being held strictly accountable for wasted missiles.

Q.—Did the American patrol force them to expend more torpedoes?

A.—If the American patrol did not force them actually to use more torpedoes, it certainly made them waste more, because it forced them to fire a larger number at long range, thus wasting many, because they registered no hits.

Q.—How did the patrols force this condition?

A.—Partly by convoying ships, so that the submarines could not approach within easy torpedoing distance without the imminent risk of having a destroyer on top of them, as their periscopes arose above the surface for a sight at the prey. Partly by so covering the sea in extended patrol that the submarine had few chances to chase ships and destroy them by shell-fire from the surface, because the wireless call for help would bring destroyers to the scene.

Q.—How many torpedoes could German submarines carry?

A.—A minimum of four on the small, old-type submarines. A maximum of twelve on the big super-submarines perfected during the war. The U-53, which visited Newport and then sank Allied ships off Nantucket, carried ten. It was said in 1918 that the Germans had instituted the manufacture of two types of torpedoes—one the full-charge, highly perfected, long-range torpedo, which costs a great deal; the other a greatly cheapened torpedo, which was limited to 500 or 600 yards' range, but was quite effective within that range.

Q.—Was the Deutschland a war-ship?

A.—No. She was a submarine merchantman, the first one in the world. She

was unarmed. The *Deutschland* was about 300 feet long, and carried a cargo of 800 tons. In 1916 she twice sailed from Germany to the United States and returned. Each crossing of the Atlantic took from 16 to 22 days, and each time she ran the British blockade successfully.

The German cargo consisted chiefly of dyestuffs. The American return cargo was rubber and nickel. No other such vessel ever reached an American port, although the sailing of a companion vessel, the *Bremen,* was reported.

Q.—Do submarines move under water with gasolene power?

A.—No. The gasolene engines can work under water only with great difficulty. Apart from the combustion of the limited supply of air in a submerged submarine, the exhausts cannot operate sufficiently against the great water pressure below the surface. Besides this, the exhaust would send an unceasing stream of bubbles to the surface, and thus betray the exact whereabouts of the submarine to its foes.

Q.—What power do submarines use under water?

A.—Power from electric storage batteries. Whenever the submarine can lie on the surface, its gasolene engines are operated at top speed, to generate electricity for charging these batteries. In dangerous waters this is often done at night. The storage batteries can store enough power so that a submarine can, if necessary, run submerged for about 24 hours without needing to come to the surface. Such long runs, however, are rarely required.

Q.—How does a submarine submerge?

A.—Partly by taking water into its ballast tanks, and partly by diving. It can submerge by taking in water only, but then it simply sinks slowly to an awash condition. It cannot take too much water in, for it would lose its buoyancy and continue to sink till it got to the bottom.

Therefore, as soon as it has enough water-weight on board to bring it awash, the engines are started, and, at the same time, the forward diving-rudders or fins are so set that as the submarine is propelled forward, its bow is forced downward. It is a very delicate operation, for the engines must work with great force, and any undue operation of the diving-rudders may send the vessel down bow first, plunging it to a dangerous depth, and even turning it end over end.

Q.—Can you give a brief summary of submarine warfare questions?

A.—(1) December 24, 1914. Admiral von Tirpitz throws out hints in a newspaper interview of a wholesale torpedoing policy. (2) February 4, 1915. German Government proclaims a war zone about the British Isles, and her intention to sink any enemy merchantman encountered in this zone without warning. (3) May 1 (dated April 22), 1915. Although our people had an absolute and perfect right to sail, the German Embassy published an advertisement in New York morning newspapers, warning them not to do so. The *Lusitania* sailed at 12.20 noon, May 1, and was sunk without warning on May 7. (4) August 19, 1915. Sinking of the *Arabic,* whereupon von Bernstorff gave an oral pledge for his government that hereafter German submarines would not sink "liners" without warning. (5) March 24, 1916. Sinking of the *Sussex,* passenger vessel, with Americans on board. (6) May 4, 1916. Germany, in response to the threat of the United States Government to break off diplomatic relations with her, gives her "*Sussex* pledge." (7) January 31, 1917. Germany notifies our government that she will begin "unrestricted submarine war" on the following day. (8) February 3, 1917. The President gives Count Bernstorff his passports and recalls Ambassador Gerard from Berlin. (9) April 6, 1917. American declaration of a state of war.

Q.—What are sound detectors?

A.—They are sound-receiving devices in the nature of microphones, to detect vessels by hearing the hum of motors and noise of other machinery. They have been wonderfully developed and it was possible by 1918 not only to identify the nature of the vessel but to tell with very considerable exactness the direction from which she was approaching, her distance from the observer, her speed, etc. An "oscillator" and improved sound detector made it possible to carry on actual wireless conversations under water at shorter or longer distances.

Q.—What are ballast tanks?

A.—They are tanks that can be pumped full of water so that the submarine will submerge. If the vessel wants to rise, the water is blown out by compressed air pumps. These must be immensely powerful, because under the surface the outside pressure of the water is enormous at any considerable depths and the pumps must be able to overcome it.

Q.—How much water must be in the tanks to help submersion?

A.—A submarine of, say 500 tons, would need to take in about 125 tons of water in order to submerge. This water is admitted through valves.

Q.—Where are the ballast tanks?

A.—They are within the main hull and the superstructure.

Q.—How quickly can they be filled?

A.—At the rate of more than 50 tons a minute.

Q.—What are a submarine's hydroplanes?

A.—They are fins or vanes that extend along both sides. They can be "set" from within at any desired angle. By setting them so that they incline downward with their forward parts, they force the submarine's bow down and thus make it dive. By setting them to incline upward the submarine is made to rise. The fins can be set to maintain the vessel in any desired position. They are so efficient for their purpose that submarines can make runs under water for hours without varying their depth more than a few feet.

Q.—Had the Germans many mine-laying submarines?

A.—They appear to have a large number, and some have been captured. They have specially constructed air-tight chambers into which the mines are placed ready to be sown. These mines are somewhat smaller than those hitherto used, but are deadly nevertheless. When the submarine has reached the desired spot, the chamber is flooded with water and the mines are ejected by mechanical means. The method by which they are anchored to the sea-bottom and then floated to the required height is exceedingly ingenious. According to Italian reports, the Germans have used a very rough sort of submarine for mine-laying in the Adriatic, but those captured by the British were apparently very efficient craft.

Q.—What is a submarine mine?

A.—It is a weapon used principally to defend the approaches to harbors and anchorages. There are two main varieties—those under direct control from the shore, and those not under control. The former are exploded by electricity from a station on land; the latter are mechanical and explode when struck by a passing vessel.

Q.—How big is a submarine mine?

A.—Submarine mines are usually cylindrical in shape, some four feet in diameter. They are not made larger owing to difficulty of handling, and are quite large enough to contain a charge sufficient to sink great ships.

Q.—Do these mines float about or are they attached?

A.—Most of them are anchored, but floating mines are also sown, and drift about to the danger of all shipping. The anchored ones usually lie some six feet below the surface. Many are made so that when they break away from their moorings they become innocuous. A special contrivance prevents the mine being fired whilst it is being laid; in fact it does not become dangerous for some minutes after it has been put into the sea.

Q.—How can these mines be discovered?

A.—Trawlers are used to discover and catch them. The British make use of the steam drifters (fishermen) of the North Sea for this purpose. The method is for four or five of them to steam abreast, sweeping the sea behind them with long hawsers and grappling apparatus. In this way all trade routes and channels can be got quickly rid of mines. The trawlers themselves are of light enough draft to pass above them. Special appliances are used for this dangerous trawling. The North Sea fishermen know the set of the currents, the channels and shoals, so are obviously the best men to send after mines which drift with the current.

Q.—What is a torpedo mine?

A.—It is a contrivance somewhat like a torpedo tube, loaded with a special form of mine, imbedded in the bottom of the channel. No mine sweepers can reach it, for it is buried in the bed itself. It is fired by electricity from the shore when a ship passes over it. This invention is used to defend harbors and straits.

Q.—What German submarine operated off the American coast before we entered the war?

A.—The U-53, a very modern vessel, which made a sudden appearance in Newport harbor, greatly to the excitement of all America. It arrived in the Rhode Island harbor on October 8, 1916, with letters for the German ambassador, and soon put to sea again. The next thing the American public learned was through big headlines saying that the U-53 was sinking ships off Nantucket. Among the five or six vessels sunk was the steamer *Stephano,* which carried American passengers. The passengers and crews of all the vessels were picked up by United States destroyers, and no lives were lost.

The importance of the matter, in the American view, was the possibility that this one submarine was the precursor of more and that it might lead to operations off the American coast. This would undoubtedly have made a highly critical condition. However, the U-53 disappeared again and no similar visit occurred during our neutrality.

Q.—Can a submarine send wireless without high masts?

A.—Yes. Of course the lack of high masts limits its radius, but submarines can do very well, indeed. The German submarines were thoroughly fitted with wireless in the very beginning of the war. Indeed, without wireless they would have been pretty helpless—unable to get in touch with any other submarine and quite unable to learn anything, except what they could see. But, fitted as they were, they could keep themselves and their fellow-raiders so well informed that they managed to warn each other quite successfully of dangers, and they succeeded in operating in unison more or less, besides picking up a good deal of the enemy wireless.

Q.—Did German submarines need no masts at all for wireless?

A.—Oh, yes. They had to have masts, and they had them. The wireless masts were folding or telescopic that could be elevated about twenty feet, and this gave them a radius of from 125 to perhaps 200 miles—the minimum distance being in the day time when conditions were poor, and the maximum being at night when conditions are unusually good. The average wireless range of the early boats probably would be about 150 miles.

Q.—Can German submarines communicate with the German admiralty?

A.—They did so even in the early days when they did not carry wireless as powerful as the equipment in the very new types. When the British battleship *Formidable* was sunk by one of them in the North Sea on New Year's Day, 1915, the German Admiralty gave out the news almost as quickly as it was known to the British Admiralty. The submarine had wirelessed her news into the air, and other German submarines had caught it, and relayed it on and on till it reached one that could, in turn, reach Germany.

Q.—Have the Germans greatly perfected wireless on submarines?

A.—It has been reported, with much circumstantial detail, that the Germans have pitched on a very simple and effective device for elevating the wireless antennae from their submarines to great heights, and thus extending their wireless radius to as much as 1,000 miles. The device is said to be simply a couple of small balloons that are sent up with the wire attached to them. Under favorable conditions they may go as high as 2,000 feet. This method could be used with comparative ease at night when the submarines could venture to lie motionless on the surface.

Q.—How many different ways can a submarine operate?

A.—In four ways: (1) running light, that is, wholly on the surface like any other vessel; (2) awash, that is, just sufficiently sunk to submerge her hull but leave her conning tower and bridge above the surface so that her captain can command her from the surface; (3) surface-submerged, that is, totally under water, but so close to the surface that her crew can see the world through their periscope;

(4) submerged, when the periscope is useless and the navigation must be done entirely by calculation.

Q.—Why does oil on the surface indicate that a submarine has been sunk?

A.—It does not, necessarily. There have been many newspaper statements that a rammed submarine was known to have been destroyed because large patches of oil were seen on the surface after the ramming. As a matter of fact, however, oil rising to the surface simply indicates that there has been an injury to one of the fuel-oil supply tanks, which are situated in the outer skin of German submarines. The actual hull of the submarine is inside of these. A smashed oil-tank would, of course, injure the under-water boat considerably, but it does not destroy her, nor prevent her from voyaging to her base for repairs. A more certain indication of fatal damage to a submarine would be the vast rush of air that must spout from her compressed air-tanks if she is really injured badly. This would mount to the surface in a perfect maelstrom of frothing bubbles.

Q.—How quickly can a submarine's guns be housed?

A.—In from twenty to thirty seconds. The Krupp rapid-fire 3-inch guns with which German submarines are armed, are so mounted that by the pull of a single lever they will turn over backward on an axle and lie snugly upside down in the well, which is then closed with a watertight, hinged cover. The time for the whole operation is 20 seconds. Some of the very latest types have, in addition to these collapsible guns, smaller deck guns, which do not need housing at all, because they are made of metals impervious to salt-water.

Q.—Can submarines escape a storm by sinking below the surface?

A.—They need only sink about thirty feet to escape nearly every sense of motion from an ordinarily rough surface sea. If the gale is very violent, there may be some motion as far as forty-five feet below the surface, but at fifty feet the water usually is still as death. This is in deep ocean water. In the shallow North Sea and the Baltic, the ground-swells often make a pumping motion that is noticeable forty feet deep, and submarines must be handled cautiously when submerged, for fear of being unexpectedly pounded against the bottom.

Q.—How quickly can a submarine submerge?

A.—A submarine that is cruising awash, and all cleared for quick action, can shut her water-tight hatches and sink out of sight in less than three minutes. In ordinary times, the period that has to elapse between running light on the surface with hatches open and gear exposed, to the moment of total submersion is about eight minutes with ordinary speed of crew-work.

Q.—How deep can a submarine go?

A.—If it were not for water-pressure, a submarine could go to the bottom of the deepest oceanic abyss in the world with absolutely no trouble. But water-pressure is a tremendous thing. At 200 feet the pressure on a man is the same as if he were under a load of 13 tons. To withstand such pressures a submarine must be of extremely strong construction. Any leak, however slight, might fill her with enough water to overcome her reserve buoyancy; and then she would sink rapidly to depths that will simply crush anything made of man. Therefore submarines rarely venture lower than 100 feet, and the usual cruising depth is thirty or fifty feet. American submarines are built by the Navy to withstand test at 200 feet, and they have navigated at greater depths, but only for a "stunt."

Q.—What American submarine was lost by sinking too deep?

A.—The F 4. She was cruising submerged off Honolulu Harbor (Hawaaian Islands), and sank in 250 feet of water. American naval divers performed extraordinary exploits in trying to reach her, and, in the end, despite the terrific water-pressure, succeeded in attaching cables so that she could be raised and dragged ashore. Her entire crew, however, was lost, for she was not raised for many days after the accident.

Q.—How far can a submarine pilot see through the periscope?

A.—On a clear day, with his periscope sticking fifteen feet above the surface, he can see such an object as a battleship five miles away. With the periscope only

just showing above the surface, he can see a ship a little more than a mile away.

Q.—How can a man find his way under water?

A.—The answer is: how does a sailor find his way on top of the water? All he can see is water and sky. The sun will tell him where east, west, north and south are, but that is all. The sailor on the surface steers not by sight (except, of course, to avoid some other ship), but by chart and compass. In fog or black nights his eyes are of no more use than if he were under water. The submarine captain steers similarly—by chart and compass.

Q.—Can a submarine be steered as easily under water as a ship on the surface?

A.—Just as easily. The rudder acts in just the same way. In fact, a ship running on the surface in a sea-way or in a high wind is much harder to steer than a submerged submarine which has no waves to disturb it.

Q.—How does a submarine commander know how deep under water he is?

A.—He simply looks at an indicator, which is worked by water pressure. The pressure of water increases at a certain positive and accurately known ratio with every bit of depth. The submarine commander can tell his depth to the foot —to the inch if he wants to be so accurate.

Q.—Did our destroyers capture any German submarines?

A.—The American destroyers *Fanning* and *Nicholson* sighted a periscope while escorting a convoy. They dropped depth charges where the submarine had submerged, and in a few minutes she came up bow first. For a moment she was down by the stern, but she righted herself and seemed to be speeding up, so the *Fanning* fired three shots at her. The submarine crew then came on deck and held up their hands in token of surrender. The destroyers got a line to her, but she sank in a few minutes. The submarine crew jumped into the water, and was picked up by the destroyers.

Q.—When did enemy submarines first appear on the American coast?

A.—The first demonstration was on May 25, 1918, when 3 American schooners were sunk in the Atlantic off the Virginia Capes. On June 2 four schooners and two steamships were sunk. The scope of operations gradually extended itself, till the record of sinkings ran from Cape Hatteras to the Bay of Fundy. On August 11 eleven small American schooners were sunk off Cape Hatteras.

Q.—Did the Germans get any big ships on our coast?

A.—Up to October, 1918, they had not succeeded in harming any transports with troops or similar important vessels, except the cruiser *San Diego*, which was sunk by external agency off Fire Island near New York City, most probably by a mine laid by submarine. The Diamond Shoals Lightship (off Cape Hatteras) was torpedoed August 7. An American tank steamship, the *Henry S. Kellogg*, was sunk 30 miles off the entrance to New York harbor on Aug. 13.

Q.—How many vessels were sunk altogether?

A.—Up to August 13, 1918, about 19 steamships, 26 schooners and enough other vessels (sailing vessels, tugs, etc.) to bring the total to 56 had been sunk. Only a few were over 5,000 tons. Most were under 500 tons, and many were not much over 100 tons. The fishing fleets of New England and Canada were the heaviest sufferers during August.

Q.—How many German submarines have been destroyed?

A.—No official figures had been issued up to September 1, 1918, but on August 19 newspaper dispatches stated that the number destroyed during the war had passed the 200 mark and that the German Admiralty had remaining in commission between 160 and 180. In the beginning of the war there were said to be 150 German submarines in commission. (No authority was named for these figures in the dispatch.)

MAN IN THE AIR

Q.—How many airplanes have we?

A.—It is impossible for military reasons to give exact figures. On August 30, 1918, General March, Chief of Staff of the United States Army, told the Senate Committee on Military Affairs that more than 1,000 DeHaviland airplanes had been completed or were in readiness to be turned over to the Government. Before that the following figures of production up to June 8, 1918, had been given out: deliveries of elementary training planes 4,495; advanced training planes 820; combat planes 286; elementary training engines 6,880; advanced training engines 2,133; Liberty engines, over 2,000; aircraft machine guns 37,250.

Q.—What is the American booming plane?

A.—One is a new huge machine known as the Handley-Page, with two Liberty motors, 400 horsepower each. This has a wing-spread of 100 feet, and its fuselage (body) is 63 feet long. It is capable of making 100 miles an hour, carrying 20 men, if necessary, together with bombs weighing 9,000 pounds, and two Browning machine guns. Its test flight was made on July 6, 1918. In September we tested out a monster Caproni, with 3 Liberty motors, 1,200 horsepower.

Q.—How many air fighters have we in France?

A.—Major-General William L. Kenly, Chief of Military Aeronautics, said before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs on August 24, 1918, that we then had 3,000 air pilots in France. By far the larger number of these was using foreign machines.

Q.—Who was in charge of American aircraft?

A.—The army aircraft service was placed in charge of John D. Ryan, a well-known American financier and mine-owner. In August, 1918, after he had been at the general head of aircraft affairs, he was appointed second assistant secretary of war with new and sweeping powers that practically centered all responsibility and control in him. Besides this army service there were the aircraft divisions of the Navy and the U. S. Marines Corps.

Q.—Does the term "ace" mean a man or a flying machine?

A.—It means a man—a man nearest to the knight of old wars, who fought battles with other knights while the armies looked on, waiting to see which champion should conquer.

The "ace" is a fighting air-man whose skill and daring make him a veritable champion of the twentieth century war. Mounted in the swiftest machines that science can turn out, the ace flies forth to attack the hostile lines in every way possible. Many times in this war a celebrated ace has fought from two to a dozen hostile machines and has not only escaped, but has actually made havoc among his assailants so that, sometimes, brave as they were, they had to yield to superior skill and resourcefulness, and retired, defeated and baffled, often with a humiliating list of killed.

Q.—What is the record of the aces?

A.—The famous aces of the war up to 1918 were: about 60 French, about 40 British, about 65 Germans, and about 60 Italian, Belgian, American (with Lafayette Escadrille), Russian, Bulgar and Turks. Bulgars and Turks had only one each.

The ten Italians are credited with more than 120 victories, and were said to be all still living at the end of autumn, 1917.

Of the French, about fifteen were killed after winning about 170 victories. Thirty-seven German aces were killed or captured after 589 victories. The one Bulgar was killed after 20 victories. The one Turk was said to be still living in February, 1918, after 8 victories.

The American Lafayette Escadrille record was, as given in the *Outlook* early in 1918: living, 12 with 35 victories; dead, 3 with 10 victories.

The 33 British aces, of whom 3 are known to have been killed, have 400 victories to their credit. There are more brilliant British airmen than these figures indicate. Great Britain, for some reason, does not make it a regular business to give details.

Q.—When was Major Lufberry killed?

A.—Major Raoul Lufberry was killed

near Toul on May 18, 1918, after almost three years of brilliant air-service. He was an American of Wallingford, Conn., and had become commander of the famous Lafayette Escadrille. As an ace he had a record of bringing down almost 20 German machines.

Q.—What was the record of Guynemer, the famous French ace?

A.—Fifty-four aeroplanes put out of commission, 215 combats and two wounds. On one occasion he succeeded in bringing down three enemy aeroplanes in less than an hour. He finally fell himself in a battle with 40 aeroplanes of the enemy after having brought down one of the forty.

Q.—Is there a new German superdreadnaught flying machine?

A.—It has been reported with circumstantial detail that the Germans are building a monster which they call the "Riesen-flugzeug," meaning literally "Giant Flying Apparatus." The details as given are that this monster is a biplane with four engines placed two abreast, one set driving a pusher propeller (in the back) and the other driving a tractor propeller (in front).

The carrying capacity in bombs alone is said to be more than a ton,—three bombs of a thousand pounds each,—enough to wreak terrific destruction.

The biplanes, according to these reports, are to be bombers exclusively, with platforms carrying a sufficiently large crew of machine and rapid-fire gunners to fight off any possible attack.

Q.—Where can the Germans get airship material?

A.—According to a report from Washington (printed with a suggestion that it was official, but not positively saying so) some captured German airplanes had been brought to this country and examined carefully by our experts early in 1918; and this examination showed that the Germans were very hard put to it indeed for material. The most noticeable shortage was in spruce and linen for the wings.

The wing beams, instead of being of solid pieces of the finest and toughest spruce, as is demanded in American specifications, were made of thin pieces jointed with nails and glue. The wings were covered with fiber cloth instead of the thoroughly well-woven linen that is demanded in a perfect machine.

Q.—Is a special bullet used against aeroplanes?

A.—Yes. It is another development of this war. It has been found that the bullet needed against flying craft must be capable of piercing armor in the first place, and that it must have some property that shall cause more damage than a mere hole, which rarely cripples an aeroplane.

The United States Army Ordnance Department has turned out a bullet of the regulation American army rifle caliber that will not only pierce the armor of flying craft, but will produce a flame as it leaves the rifle or machine gun. This flame serves as a "tracer," thus enabling the gunner to gauge his shots and correct his aim till he hits the mark. By day the fiery compound leaves a hanging smoke to serve as "tracer." When the fiery bullet hits, it goes through the armor and sets fire along its whole line of flight. The object particularly is to explode the flying machine's gasoline tanks.

Q.—Did Allied aviators decorate graves of German airmen?

A.—Yes. At the funerals of Boelcke and Immelmann, German military aviators in Belgium, British aviators flew over and dropped wreaths.

It is one cheering fact in the war that the aviators of both sides performed this chivalrous act more than once.

Q.—Does war destroy many aeroplanes?

A.—The French authorities reported in 1917 that in one period of four months they had brought down 73 German machines inside of French lines. They calculated that 188 had gone down behind the German lines, and of these they thought enough had been so badly shattered to justify the claim that at least 231 had been destroyed in those four months.

Q.—How big is the British naval air-service?

A.—It was 700 before the war and by 1918 had increased to 41,000. The *United Service Gazette* (British) said in 1918: "During one month the aircraft patrol around the British coast alone is five times the circumference of the earth.

During September (1917) 64 raids were made on enemy dockyards, etc., and 2,736 bombs were dropped, totaling 85 tons of explosive."

Q.—At the beginning of war, how many aircraft were there?

A.—France had 22 dirigibles and 1,400 aeroplanes; Russia had 18 dirigibles and 800 aeroplanes; Great Britain, 9 dirigibles and 400 aeroplanes; Belgium, 2 dirigibles and 100 aeroplanes; Germany, 40 dirigibles and 1,000 aeroplanes; Austria, 8 dirigibles and 400 aeroplanes; while the United States had only 23 aeroplanes, mostly obsolete.

Q.—What was Germany's air strength later in the war?

A.—It is estimated by the French that the German air fleet at the beginning of 1918 numbered about 300 squadrillas, or a total of 2,500 machines, each squadrilla being comprised of from five to ten machines.

Q.—What is the difference between an airship and an aeroplane?

A.—An airship is lighter than air; that is to say, it mounts because it is filled with a buoyant gas. An aeroplane is heavier than air; it carries no gas to lift it, but mounts by forcing its wings against the air. Consequently it must always keep moving at a fairly high speed.

Q.—What keeps an aeroplane in the air?

A.—Its motion, or speed, developed constantly by an engine. If the engine stops, the forward motion ceases and the aeroplane falls. By volplaning, or coasting, the aviator can often establish a forward-downward course and check the fall.

Q.—Are there many varieties of aeroplanes?

A.—Several; but all are based upon the same type. An Australian (Mr. Hargreaves) may be said to be the man who made the aeroplane possible. He invented the box kite, and an aeroplane is just a box kite, with a powerful engine and propeller that, in a measure, may be said to take the place of the string. Aeroplanes fall into two main classes—monoplanes and biplanes. The former have one plane only, the latter two.

Q.—Has the aeroplane much influence in war?

A.—It has revolutionized warfare, especially by making surprise attacks almost impossible. In maneuvers it has again and again brought opposing forces to an absolute deadlock, and in this war it has enabled both the Allies and the Germans to counter nearly every attack. In the old days, a commander had to rely largely upon his intuition and knowledge of war; he had to risk regiments to ascertain the actual position of his foe, and waste days making feigned attacks all along the line, until he discovered the weak spot. Now the aeroplane scout tells him what he wants to know, often in a few minutes. As Lord French said, we now have to play the game of war with all the cards on the table.

Q.—What is a seaplane?

A.—It is an aeroplane fitted with floats, which enable it to rest on the water. Great Britain has devoted special attention to this type of machine, and has more of them than any other Power. These planes can fly from the deck of a warship. When they return they alight on the water, and are hauled aboard. The Americans have perfected an aerial hydro-aeroplane, a light boat, with wings. The British seaplane is a powerful machine, but it cannot ascend so rapidly, or to such very great heights as the other types of aeroplanes.

Q.—Are there many types of airships?

A.—A good many. The most efficient of all is the Zeppelin. This is what is called the rigid type; somewhat similar is the Suchette Lanz. The Parseval is a semi-rigid airship, used principally for scouting, although it can drop bombs if required. Similar to it are the Astra-Torres, the Clement-Bayard, the Lebaudy, and the Gross. There are also little dirigibles, of the type of the Alpha, Beta and Gamma British army airships, which appear to be of minor use.

Q.—What is the cost of a Zeppelin?

A.—It is not known definitely. Count Zeppelin sold an early one to the German Government for $125,000. Great Britain bought a semi-rigid Astra-Torres, in 1913, for £18,000 ($90,000).

Q.—What is the difference between a Zeppelin and a Parseval?

A.—Put simply, the difference between the two is that the first is a rigid framework of aluminum and light steel, into which a large number of separate gas bags are put. The second is a large gas bag, from which a car is suspended. In the rigid type cabins and platforms are firmly attached to the framework, within which gas bags are stowed; several of the latter might be punctured and lose their gas without the airship falling. In the non-rigid type the car is suspended by wire ropes, and hangs beneath the gas envelope. If this is punctured seriously the whole affair collapses at once.

Q.—Could Zeppelins cross the sea to bomb American cities?

A.—That has been said very often, but it must be remarked that there is a great mass of very powerful technical factors against the assumption. The cruising radius of a Zeppelin is very great, or can be made very great, but a trip across the Atlantic, it must be remembered, also involves a trip back again.

If a great effect were planned; it might be assumed that the Germans would try it, and that possibly they would succeed. But a single raid by a single Zeppelin, even if successful, would not be an effect commensurate with the effort expended. To produce real havoc, a whole fleet would be needed. This would, of course, multiply the risks of the adventure exceedingly and it is hardly possible that the fleet should escape without very severe losses.

The cruising radius of the Zeppelins in service in 1914 was known to be 3,000 miles maximum.

Q.—Could Zeppelins ride out a gale over the Atlantic?

A.—They would not have to do so. They would probably merely need to rise to higher levels in the air until they were above the storm. Storms are all of limited extent—that is, they may seem pretty unlimited to the human beings caught in them, but geographically they rarely cover a very big area; and, as far as height is concerned, they may be very limited indeed. People in mountain countries know this. They often find that a climb of much less than a thousand feet will bring them into a dead calm whereas just below them a veritable tempest may be beating the tree-tops.

Q.—What was the reason for the great Zeppelin disaster of 1917?

A.—The Zeppelin fleet which drifted helplessly over France, with the result that a number were brought down, is said to have suffered from frozen engines. The big airships had risen to enormous altitudes to prevent observation or attack by aeroplanes, and the intense cold completely froze up their motors, according to report.

Q.—Did a very large Zeppelin come down in France?

A.—One Zeppelin, L-49, which came down at Dammartin, was fully as long as an average ocean steamship. It measured 643 feet and had about as much "beam" as most ships of that size, for its diameter was about one-sixth of its length, which would make it all of a hundred feet wide at its widest part—truly a monstrous thing to ride the solitudes of air!

It carried a large quantity of fuel oil for its motors, of which there were five, each able to produce 240 horsepower.

Q.—How much gas could the L-49 carry?

A.—According to the French examiners and experts, this type carried 18 gas-bag reservoirs within the metal skeleton of the hull, and the quantity was 55,000 cubic meters of hydrogen gas, enough to lift the twelve-ton ship with all its additional tons of weight in the form of supplies, bombs, etc.

This Zeppelin carried a crew of about 20 men and was armed like a naval vessel, with machine guns and automatic guns for use against aeroplanes, etc.

Q.—Why did the L-49 have five motors?

A.—Two of them were used purely as auxiliary motors, or, rather, as emergency motors. They were rarely operated, but were in effect spare motors in case of accident.

Q.—What is meant by the "roof" of a Zeppelin?

A.—It is technical slang for altitude-rising ability. When an aerial expert says that the "roof" of such and such an airship is 4,000 feet, he means that it can rise 4,000 feet into the air at most.

The "roof" of the original Zeppelins

was probably about a mile. After the war began, we found that Zeppelins had gained ability and could navigate up to 6,000 feet and more. It is said now that the very latest type of this rigid airship can rise and remain under control in heights ranging from 15,000 to 20,000 feet above the surface of the earth.

Q.—Why cannot every airship rise to such heights?

A.—Because of the meteorological conditions. The highly rarefied air at such altitudes makes two immense difficulties: (1) The air being thinner and lighter, the airship (whether gas-lifted or engine-lifted) has far less support than it has in the dense air nearer the surface of earth. In other words, it becomes heavier with every foot of ascension into these rarefied regions of silence. Even the propellers lose thrust heavily. All the conditions are severe. The flying machine labors like the men in it, whose lungs and hearts and blood-vessels are all strained. (2) The immense rarefaction and the intense cold combine to destroy all the equilibrium of the motor, which is an engine built for a certain range of pressures.

Q.—Is the Zeppelin really a failure?

A.—It has failed as a fighting machine because the aeroplane, with its superior mobility, has proved a deadly enemy. As a terror-inspiring war weapon, it has failed even more signally. By bombing unfortified towns and otherwise heartlessly attacking helpless civilian populations with it, the Germans have not only turned all nations against themselves, but actually intensified the spirit of inexorable resistance and war to a victory among their opponents.

Zeppelins have remained valuable as mobile scouts and watchers. Thus they have been highly effective in watching the North Sea. Cruising high beyond reach, and able to maintain their stations for days and nights at a time, they have made a guarding fleet that has given the German navy much additional security. Motor-lifted aeroplanes could not possibly do it as well.

Q.—Why has there been so little progress in developing the dirigible airship?

A.—The chief difficulty—that of overcoming the effect of varying temperatures —remained long unsolved. The rays of the sun, appearing suddenly on a cloudy day or growing warmer with the approach of noon, would expand the gas, send the airship to higher altitudes, and possibly burst the bag. Disappearance of the sun or the approach of night would contract the gas and cause the airship to descend.

Q.—How did Count Zeppelin overcome this?

A.—He covered his gas bag (or bags, there being as many as eighteen in later models) with an outer envelope held rigid by a framework of aluminum, thus keeping the sun's rays from the gas bag.

Q.—Where does the crew of a Zeppelin sleep?

A.—Within the framework is a long passageway for the crew, a mere boardwalk nine inches wide composed of wooden slats separated one from another by several inches. Along this passageway hangs a series of hammocks. This is where the crew is quartered.

Q.—What color is a Zeppelin?

A.—The under half is painted a coal black to make it invisible at night, the upper surface of the hull is painted white and gray to make it blend with a cloud so as to make it difficult to be seen from an aeroplane.

Q.—What is the speed of a Zeppelin?

A.—The speed of the present Zeppelin is never less than 60 miles an hour and may be developed as high as 100 miles an hour. Speed saves the Zeppelin from destruction in a gale. Speed has been obtained by trebling the size of a Zeppelin and by applying the lessons learned in developing the 130-mile-an-hour fighting aeroplane.

Q.—When was the first Zeppelin raid made over England?

A.—Zeppelins flew over the British Isles for the first time on January 19, 1915. Nine bombs were thrown at Yarmouth and nine persons were killed. The result of the raid was an immediate increase in voluntary recruiting. London was first bombed by Zeppelins on May 31, 1915, and six people killed. From the date of the first raid to the middle of March, 1917, about forty Zeppelin raids were made upon England.

Q.—Has America developed a standard motor?

A.—Yes. It is known as the "Liberty Engine." The building of this engine was no inventing job. It was built to be standardized, and was a combination of all approved things. It was made so that it may be assembled anywhere and so that each part of one engine is interchangeable with each similar part of any other engine.

The ordinary automobile engine does not run wide open at full speed more than 10 to 15 per cent of its life. The Liberty engine must run at full speed, wide open, all the time. It was designed so that there shall be a minimum of waste and of supplies needed, with a maximum of efficiency.

Q.—What is the horsepower of the Liberty motor?

A.—The Liberty motor develops 400 horsepower at 1,625 revolutions on a total weight of only 800 pounds, less than 2 pounds for each produced horsepower. This is an exceedingly excellent showing as the celebrated British Rolls-Royce, which weighs 950 pounds, has never developed more than 360 horsepower.

Q.—What is the life of an aeroplane engine?

A.—Experts say that it is rarely more than 100 hours. That is, it is necessary to substitute some new part after the engine has been running at full speed for 100 hours.

An idea of the complicated mechanism of the aeroplane may be gained by knowing that there are 921 steel stampings, 798 forgings cast, and 276 turn-buckles in a single machine. In a single battle-plane there are 23,000 screws. Seventy per cent of spare parts must be kept on hand for every battle-plane.

Q.—Has the war evolved a distinct type of aeroplane?

A.—The biplane has become almost supreme. The birdlike monoplane has practically disappeared. More general use of the triplane is a possible development of the near future. Improvements are constant, and new models soon become out of date. Aeroplanes are so frequently brought down within the opposing lines that secrets in construction are few. Improvements are in the line of speed and responsiveness, rather than mechanical safety, for the greatest danger is from enemy aviators.

Q.—What are the principal aeroplane models in general use?

A.—(1) The one-seated fighter, carrying a fixed machine gun in front of the aviator and a pivotal machine gun slightly above him. (2) The two-passenger reconnaissance or "general purpose" machine, with pilot and gunner or observer. (3) The large, twin-engine bombing machine, carrying three or more men.

Q.—How many types of aeroplanes are used in the American army?

A.—Aeroplane needs for war purposes may be divided thus, as experience has shown: First, training machines; second, advanced training machines; third, battle-planes; and fourth, heavy bombing planes.

The training machines, for the purpose of aviators, are low-powered machines—that is, the engines are of from one hundred to one hundred and twenty-five horsepower; the machines are slower than the battle-planes and very much easier and less tricky to handle. The men learn on these. These machines do not use Liberty engines. At present a four- and an eight-cylinder engine is being installed in them, which answers every requirement.

Q.—How can a photograph from an aeroplane make a picture that anybody can understand?

A.—It doesn't. Very few persons can understand it. Aerial military photography has introduced a class of specialists in "reading" these photographs. To the ordinary human being they might be as meaningless as a picture puzzle. There are hundreds of tiny characters in a military aero-photograph that look utterly unimportant to the ordinary person, but that indicate such vastly important things as bomb-proofs, guns, ammunition mounds, etc., to the expert.

Q.—What type of camera is used for photographing from aeroplanes?

A.—The photographic aeroplane merely ascends to a given point, when, by pressing a button or pulling a string, the camera is set in action automatically. Some photographic planes carry several cameras attached in such positions that several groups of pictures may be taken at once. The exhaust from the motor sometimes is used to operate cameras that take rapid successive pictures. Photographs

that are perfectly clear have been taken from a height of three and a half miles. By means of color and light filtration, certain things, often invisible to the eye, are made to stand out sharply in photographs of one especial kind.

The aviator-observer may not be able to see such objects as men lying still upon the ground, wrapped in camouflage coats, but, by means of light filtration, the camera sharply reveals them.

Q.—How are aeroplanes able to fly at night?

A.—Navigation lights affixed to the edge of the lower plane and under control of the pilot are used for flying at night. The lights are also invaluable in squadron formation as a guide to other machines in the group. German air raiders use variegated lights for signaling between different units.

Q.—How can an aeroplane effect a safe landing at night?

A.—This is one of the greatest problems an aviator has to solve, and in the early days of the war many disasters overtook the men who went up at night, owing to the bad landings. It is said that the Germans solved the problem in an ingenious manner. A pit was dug in the center of the aerodrome and covered over with a thick sheet of glass to withstand the weight of an aeroplane, should its wheels pass over it. A powerful white light was placed in the pit.

At a distance of about 250 feet from this light, and also sunk in the ground, were placed four red lights arranged in relation to the cardinal points of the compass. Each of these red lights was connected by underground wires to a wind-vane, mounted on a mast or tower at some convenient point.

At night the central light glowed constantly, while the only red light that showed was the one in the direction of the wind that happened to be blowing, thus indicating to the pilot the wind conditions where the landing was to be made.

Aviators landing in unlighted zones at night undertake excessive risks. Aeroplane pilots often drop flare-lights to illuminate the ground on which they want to descend. Night flying is avoided as much as possible by all the belligerents.

Q.—What are anti-aircraft guns?

A.—They are guns so mounted that they may be pointed upward to deliver direct fire against objects in the sky. In the first stages of the great war they were very simple, often being merely improvised. After a period of experience, they became more and more specialized, until they acquired a distinct status of their own, being fitted with unique appliances and firing ammunition quite different from that of other guns.

Q.—What is the distinctive ammunition?

A.—Shrapnel-shells that can ascend to great heights, with smoke-appliances so that the gunners could note exactly where the shells exploded, and thus correct their aim continually.

Q.—Were these guns successful?

A.—They were extremely successful in forcing aircraft to fly high and avoid zones of aircraft fire. They did not destroy aircraft nearly so well. The best enemy of aircraft proved to be other aircraft.

Q.—Did anti-aircraft guns not destroy many flying machines?

A.—They certainly destroyed a number. But it has been estimated by experts at the front that an average of 6,000 shots has to be expended for each aircraft brought down.

Q.—How do gunners find the range of an aeroplane?

A.—With an instrument called a telemeter. It gives the exact altitude of the aircraft, and is as simple as it is ingenious. There are two apertures—one for each eye. In one the aircraft is seen right side up; in the other it is inverted. By turning a thumbscrew the two images are brought together. When one is superimposed exactly over the other the altitude is shown in meters, or feet, on a dial.

Q.—Is the aviation service not the most dangerous of any in this war?

A.—It was so considered when the war began. It seems likely, too, that in the first months the mortality among aviators was enormous. But after a few years, greatly to the surprise of military men, the aviators had developed such science and skill that instead of being the most dangerous, aviation actually had become the least dangerous service in the war.

Q.—Does this mean that few aviators are killed?

A.—No. It means only that in proportion to the numbers engaged in the work, the losses are small. In percentages, infantry suffers the most casualties (just as it always has done in every war). Artillery comes next in percentage of casualty; the medical corps comes third and aviation comes fourth.

This fact has now been so well established that early in 1918 General Pershing, commander of the American expeditionary force in France, recommended that the extra pay for aviators, based on the theory of extra-hazardous service, be discontinued.

Q.—Has anything new happened to make the aviator safe?

A.—No, nothing new, unless we can call vastly increased skill and science new. The aviators have learned how to beat the anti-aircraft gun, for one thing. For purposes of destroying aeroplanes, all guns so far devised have been comparative failures. They are immensely useful for forcing aircraft to fly high and thus they hamper them in observation and bomb-dropping; but as instruments of damage they have not proved themselves.

Thus the only dangerous opponent that the aeroplane has to-day in war is another aeroplane. But, except for the extraordinary exploits of extraordinary individuals, and for the distinct fighting clan of the service, the average army aviator's chief business is not to fight but to scout. Therefore, though there are very many fierce combats in the air, almost daily, the regular daily work of aviation is not combative.

Q.—Are there different branches of military aviation service?

A.—There are four large general services nowadays in military aviation—exploration, observation, bombardment and combat. There are aeroplanes whose sole duty is to observe, others who protect the observer from hostile attacks, others who are bombarders, etc. The Lafayette Escadrille, for example, was mainly a bombardment fleet, dropping bombs upon the enemy's munition depots and railway lines before an attack.

Q.—How fast does a fighting aeroplane fly?

A.—The swift single-seat fighting machines of the Allies at present are flying from 125 to 140 miles an hour. Each is armed with one or two machine guns, rigidly fastened to the aeroplane, and capable of shooting only in the direction of the axis of the machine.

Q.—How does a fighter attack?

A.—One of the common maneuvers consists of diving from a sufficient distance to about 300 feet behind the adversary; dropping about 60 feet lower, and coming into position for firing by an upward dash. If the enemy has suspected nothing, it is sure death for him.

Q.—What is a blimp?

A.—"Blimp" is the nickname given by American air-pilots to a small American dirigible balloon used largely for coast scouting and for hunting submarines. The gas bag of the American blimp is about 150 feet long and 30 feet in diameter. The lower structure that contains the motors, crew, etc., is much like that of an airplane. The blimp is a hybrid of air-plane and balloon. It can make about 40 miles an hour, carries 2 men usually and is armed with "depth bombs"—bombs which explode automatically at any desired depth under water. The advantage of a blimp is that it can be stopped so that it will remain motionless over any given spot. Thus it can hover over a submerged submarine and watch it till an opportunity comes for attack.

Q.—What was our success in aircraft production?

A.—The vast program had met many difficulties in the first year of war, but by autumn, 1918, they were being well met and in October of that year dispatches announced that American air fighters in France were being supplied rapidly with American machines.

Q.—Are bombs aimed, or merely dropped, from aircraft?

A.—Much progress has been made in bomb-sighting. The chief difficulty is to establish a true vertical direction. Modern bomb-dropping machines are equipped with instruments not only for sighting, but for determining allowances necessary for speed, height, wind, and so forth.

Q.—How much bombing material can a Zeppelin carry?

A.—The Zeppelin captured by the French had provision for eighteen 120-

lb. bombs—more than a ton. When a greater bomb-load is carried (often as much as four tons), fuel-load is sacrificed and safety impaired.

Q.—How can aviators safely have glass windows and goggles?

A.—In order to keep fragments of glass from injuring the pilot in case of accident, triplex glass is used for windows and goggles. In a recent accident where an aeroplane, going ninety miles an hour, struck a tree, the triplex glass window did not throw off a single fragment.

Q.—What changes did 1917 bring in aeroplanes?

A.—The most important change was the growth in size. Even the single-seater fast fighting machines are being built larger to accommodate a larger engine with water-cooling apparatus, which also necessitates a greater wing area in order that the machine may be slowed up enough for safe landing. The fighting aeroplanes were beginning to have two machine guns timed to fire between the propeller blades, and other guns to be fired at various angles. The slower reconnaissance type had also increased its engine power. The twin-engine machine was more and more used. Both the Germans and the Allies had the pilot in the front cockpit handling one or two synchronized guns, with a gunner placed in the after-seat managing a gun on a turntable.

Q.—Do aeroplane guns really fire through the propeller?

A.—Yes. The gun is regulated by a wonderfully ingenious yet simple apparatus that times its shots so exactly that each bullet will surely pass between the blades of the propeller, though the latter is whirling as swiftly as it can go.

Q.—What is the height record for aeroplanes?

A.—The record to September, 1918, was held by Lieutenant Papa, of the Italian army, with 23,200 feet. On September 18, 1918, Captain R. W. Schroeder, U. S. A., ascended to 28,900 feet over Dayton, Ohio, after a steady circular climb. He had to breathe oxygen from a tank which he carried with him, in order to survive through the rarefied air.

Q.—When did the Wrights first fly?

A.—In the summer of 1900 at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, a tiny settlement on a strip of sandy land between the Atlantic Ocean and the big bay known as Albemarle Sound. Their machine was only 165 square feet in area. It was a bi-plane with a small plane at a short distance in front of the main surfaces. There was no motor. The idea was to launch it from a hill. The necessary elevation was found at Kill Devil Hill, about 4 miles from their camp, with a height of about 100 feet. The experiments were so successful that in 1901 they took a much larger machine (308 square feet) to the same place. These glide experiments were followed on December 17, 1903, by the first tests with a power machine.

Q.—What is a kite balloon and what is it used for?

A.—Kite balloons are large balloons controlled from the ground by ropes. They are used for observation purposes on the fighting fronts and by the Allied navies in detecting U-boats. The balloon is attached to the deck of a trawler, and the observer, in his basket, can easily spot a submarine even when it is below the surface of the water.

Q.—Have aeroplanes ever made use of smoke devices?

A.—Yes. The big German Gotha aeroplanes, which raided England from time to time, were equipped with apparatus for producing smoke clouds, which were emitted whenever the raiders were seriously threatened by anti-aircraft artillery. As the smoke was white and practically of the same formation as the clouds overhead, it was a hard matter for the gunners below to find the machines.

Q.—Where did the aeroplane first prove its effectiveness?

A.—First mention is made by Sir John French at the Aisne, in a report to the War Office in the first week of September, 1914. He says, "Sir David Henderson and the Royal Flying Corps have proved their incalculable value."

Q.—What is the status of airmen caught while dropping printed propaganda?

A.—There is no specific rule in international law or the rules of war to govern

the case exactly. The circulation of propaganda in enemy lines by air-route is entirely new. In previous wars there was the same effort to circulate propaganda among enemy soldiers and population, but it was attended with such difficulty that it did not reach great magnitude.

Q.—What was done in previous wars to men caught circulating such matter?

A.—Usually the case was simple, because the men who tried to spread it had to enter enemy lines in disguise, and thus were subject to execution as spies. If, however, a soldier should have stolen into enemy lines in his uniform with such propaganda, it might fairly be claimed that he should be treated like a soldier attacking an enemy line with weapons. But, presumably, his captors would not willingly take that view of it.

Q.—Why is castor oil important to the success of aviation?

A.—It has been found to be the only practical lubricant, and it was necessary for the United States to bring a cargo of castor beans all the way from Bombay, India, to speed up the industry of producing castor oil in sufficient quantities to carry out the big aviation program.

Q.—Did the Kaiser have a narrow escape from a bomb from an aeroplane?

A.—Yes. While the Kaiser was watching the assault on Ypres from Thielt in Belgium, a British aeroplane dropped a bomb near his position, killing several members of his staff. There was no knowledge of his presence there on the part of the aviator.

Q.—How does an aeroplane rise from a ship's deck?

A.—Aeroplane-carrying warships are provided with a skid-way built as a superstructure over the decks and arranged in such a way that it does not interfere with the guns. Usually it is astern. The most modern type of air-ship-carrying vessel in our navy is thus designed.

The aeroplane is lifted to the skidway, where it rests on a sliding platform or sledge. The naval aeroplane, being a hydro-aeroplane, is practically a flying boat, and, therefore, has no wheels with which it may start itself from the surface. Besides, the size of a ship is not sufficient to give a good start. Therefore, instead of projecting itself forward with its own engine power, as the land-plane does, the naval plane is shot from the ship by a catapult, which sends the sledge whizzing into the air with the plane on it. As the flying machine rises, the platform falls into the sea, to be picked up by the sailors.

Q.—How does a naval plane return to the ship? Can it land on deck?

A.—No. It returns as near to the ship as possible, and then glides to the water, where it floats on its pontoons or boats. Then it motors on the surface to the side of the ship. Tackles and purchases are lowered with sailors, who fasten the plane into a sling and the whole apparatus, aviators and all, is hoisted aboard and swung where it belongs.

Q.—What is the reason for the shortage of spruce lumber?

A.—Spruce has been found to be the only lumber with sufficient strength and lightness for aeroplanes. Uncle Sam has found it necessary to take over the entire spruce output and has been obliged to go into the forests himself with lumber squadrons of many thousand men to get out sufficient trees to build the thousands of aeroplanes now needed for the Western front.

Q.—Is there no substitute for spruce?

A.—Up to this time no satisfactory substitute has been secured for spruce wood for the frames of the fuselage, the wings, the struts, and so on. It answers the purpose better than any other, resists shocks with greater strength, has a greater all-round capability than any other wood or metal that has as yet been tried.

Q.—What is a penguin?

A.—It is a machine for beginners, so called because it has only tiny wings, so that it cannot rise from the ground, but simply charges wildly along the earth on its wheels. The student-flyer learns steering and the use of controls in it, and as the machine really is very difficult to handle, he gets excellent training without danger. The penguin is propelled by the propeller like a regular aeroplane.

Q.—How many aviators has a modern army?

A.—For obvious reasons the numbers in the Allied armies and our own cannot be stated. The French say that during the fighting of July and August, 1915, the German air forces on the western front were 1,100 fighting machines, 1,100 scouts, 200 bombarding machines, and 250 for maintaining communications with the infantry. Twenty-five hundred aviators would seem to be about what each of the big belligerents had in 1918.

Q.—How heavy did airplane losses become during the big fighting in 1918?

A.—While the statements made by both sides conflict very greatly as to relative losses, they agree in showing that the aggregate losses were enormous and continuous. An indication of the number that was destroyed and must be replaced day by day is given in the French statement that 293 German airplanes were destroyed in July, 1918, on the French front alone out of a total of 338 acting there. It was stated that from January 1 to July 30, 1918, the Germans had lost 1,504 airplanes as against 352 French machines brought down. The German claims of Allied machines destroyed were about equally great, so that it is easy to realize how great the destruction must be. On September 2, 1918, a British dispatch said that in two days 19 German airplanes and 6 hostile balloons had been destroyed. The 6 balloons and 13 of the machines were destroyed in one day and the British lost 9 machines. One estimate is that losses all around from all causes on all fronts aggregated more than one hundred machines a day.

Q.—How much bombing was done from the air?

A.—This branch of fighting increased marvelously in a very few months. Special bombing planes were improved and enlarged continually. In the early part of 1918 the British War Office reported that British aviators had, during January, dropped 7,653 bombs in enemy areas while the Germans had dropped 1,482 within the British areas. Of these the British dropped 5,900 in the daytime whereas the Germans bombed mostly at night, having been recorded as dropping only 221 in daytime.

Q.—How much did bombing increase during 1918?

A.—In one day, according to a Paris dispatch of September 2, 1918, the French dropped 8 tons of bombs on enemy areas near Villers-Franquex and on stations at Maison Bleue and Guignecourt. At the latter place alone 4½ tons were dropped. The British reported that in 2 days (up to Sept. 1, 1918) 12½ tons of bombs had been dropped.

Q.—Could the Germans send aeroplanes from submarines to bomb the United States?

A.—They could, and in theory the problem presents no difficulty at all. A hydroaeroplane could be carried in the large very modern submarines in "knock-down" form, to be assembled on deck and launched to rise from the sea. In actual practice, however, very many and quite difficult problems interpose. Even a "knocked-down" aeroplane fit for fighting and bombing requires very considerable cargo-space. To assemble it on the deck of a submarine is possible but vastly difficult. The machine could not be expected to make more than one flight. Even if it escaped being shot down, the chances are altogether against its pilots being able to find the submarine again. Without a base, the enemy pilots would have no choice except to come down in America as soon as their gasolene supply was gone, even though they might have evaded pursuers.

OUR NAVY

Q.—How many ships are in the American Navy?

A.—We had more than one thousand within seven months after America declared war. This was an expansion from a navy of 300 vessels, which we had in 1916. Of course we reckon in every type of ship in this aggregate, from the super-dreadnaught type to the submarine chasers and scouting craft.

The vessels under construction at the end of 1917 were 800 in number, of which 425 were large craft (ranging from all-big-gun ships to destroyers) and 350 were fast types of submarine chasers.

Q.—What has been the increase in men?

A.—On the day when war was declared the Navy had 64,680 enlisted men. On July 23, 1918, we had 209,831 men enlisted in the regular navy establishment, with 9,327 officers, total 219,158. There were 203,729 Naval Reserves, 15,846 officers, total 219,566. Coast guards were 6,377, officers 228, total 6,605, making a grand sum of 445,329. Adding the men of the U. S. Marine Corps and the National Naval Volunteers who had been combined with the Naval Reserves we had more than half a million men.

Q.—What was our naval rank in 1914?

A.—Third among the great Powers in all-big-gun ships. The navies stood: Great Britain, Germany, United States, France, Japan, Russia, Italy, Austria, Spain, Brazil, Argentine, Chile.

Q.—Did we compare at all in 1914 with Germany in big ships?

A.—Our Navy, on July 1, 1914, included these completed ships in service: Eight dreadnaught battleships, 22 predreadnaughts, 25 cruisers, 51 torpedo-boat destroyers, 13 torpedo boats, and 30 submarines. We had at that date a naval strength of 66,273 officers and enlisted men.

At the outbreak of war the German fleet had 28 dreadnaughts built and building, 20 older battleships, 55 cruisers, 154 torpedo craft, and 45 submarines.

Q.—Were we very inferior navally to England and Germany?

A.—Decidedly so. In warship tonnage we stood as follows:

Great Britain	2,158,256
Germany	951,713
United States	774,353
France	665,748
Japan	519,640
Italy	285,460
Russia	270,861
Austria-Hungary	221,526

Q.—How many German dreadnaughts were actually afloat in 1914?

A.—It is hard to say exactly, because there is always some uncertainty about ships actually afloat and ships nearing completion. Sometimes naval estimates carry all ships (completed, partly completed and even contemplated) to show full strength. At other times, to conceal full strength, they show only the ships actually afloat and even of these they show only the undoubtedly first-class ones, relegating older ones to a second line. An apparently conservative list indicates that when war was declared Germany had at least 16 undoubtedly first-class dreadnaughts and battleships afloat and enough others building, or appropriated for, to make a total of 28, of which some very certainly were due soon to be launched. All these 28 were not, however, "all-big-gun" ships.

Q.—How did the various Powers compare in big-gun ships in 1914?

A.—In big-gun ships Great Britain, according to the U. S. Navy Department, Office of Naval Intelligence, had in the end of the year 1913, 18 all-big-gun dreadnaughts alone, with 14 building. Germany had 13 with 6 building. France had 2 with 9 building. Japan had 2 with 4 building. Italy had 2 with 7 building. Austria had 2 with 2 building.

Q.—What are all-big-gun ships?

A.—They are the very last thing in naval construction, being ships whose turrets are loaded to the limit of possibility with the largest rifled steel cannon ever

made. The battleships of the past had various "batteries" of guns with many calibers. The "all-big-gun" ship is designed to do its smashing with a huge, swift discharge of projectiles of one size —the heaviest projectile ever used either on land or sea.

Q.—How do the belligerents compare in battle-cruisers?

A.—We know only how they did compare before the war. In the beginning of 1914 they stood as follows: Great Britain 9 and 1 building, Germany 4 and 3 building, Russia none and 4 building, Japan 1 and 3 building, and Italy and Austria none and none building.

Q.—How many ships did Japan have when war began?

A.—Our Office of Naval Intelligence stated, December, 1913, that Japan then had actually afloat 2 first-class all-big-gun dreadnaughts, 13 battleships of about 10,000 tons each, 1 battle cruiser, 13 armored cruisers, 14 other cruisers, 54 destroyers, 28 torpedo boats and 13 submarines.

Q.—Has the American Navy any dreadnaughts?

A.—We have many ships of the dreadnaught and, indeed, super-dreadnaught class; but the term is not used in our navy. These monster ships are called "battleships of the first line" by the Navy Department, and the favorite American naval name for them is All-Big-Gun Ships.

Q.—What system is used in naming American warships?

A.—A very simple one, easy to remember, and having the further virtue that whoever learns the principle can ever afterward identify the type (kind) of each American war-vessel as soon as the name is given.

All armored ships (which means battleships and armored cruisers) are named after States. Cruisers are named after cities, with the general rule obtaining that a cruiser of the first class shall be named for a city of the first class, etc. Gunboats are named after smaller cities.

Destroyers bear the names of naval officers who have won some historic distinction. Submarines are known merely by a letter with a number after it denoting their place in the class shown by the letter (as A-2).

Fuel ships and colliers bear the names of Greek and Roman deities and heroes, such as *Jupiter, Cyclops, Vulcan,* etc. Supply ships bear such names as *Supply, Glacier,* etc.

There are some exceptions in each type to the rule given here. Thus, one American ship in the battleship line bears and probably always will bear the name *Kearsarge,* to commemorate the famous steam frigate that sank the equally famous Confederate *Alabama,* off Cherbourg, France, at the end of the Civil War.

Q.—How many States are represented by armored ships bearing their names?

A.—Every State in the Union is represented by a battleship of the first line, a battleship of the second line, or an armored cruiser. That makes 49 capital ships named after States. But in 1916 our line of armored big ships afloat, designed under construction, or ready to launch had grown so that we had 52 of them planned, 4 more than we had States. This overflow bears the names of four cities.

Q.—What system does the British Navy use for naming ships?

A.—A leading principle in British naval nomenclature is to immortalize the names of famous British war-vessels. Thus there always is some capital ship in the British Navy bearing the name *Revenge,* after Sir Richard Grenville's famous ship that fought the Spanish fleet, as immortalized in Tennyson's poem. Such names as, *Agamemnon, Vanguard, Warsprite,* etc., are examples of this system.

There also are names of enemy ships captured in illustrious actions. This explains why some British vessels today bear French names. There is, however, no deliberate system that controls the naming of British ships throughout. Some bear the names of British Kings and Queens, others have merely characteristic names, such as *Formidable, Terrible, Lion,* etc.

Q.—Do the Germans name ships for their naval men?

A.—The Germans have had very little naval history. Therefore only a few of their warships bear names connected with sea-actions or sea-history.

Their ships are named partly after German States or cities (*Pommern, Liepzic,* etc.) partly for sovereigns, and partly for

famous generals (*Lutzow, Scharnhorst, Bluecher,* etc.). Other ships are named for animals and sea-birds, like some British ships.

Q.—When was the first American gun fired in the war?

A.—The first American gun of the war was fired April 19, 1917, from the steamship *Mongolia* at the periscope of a German submarine. The *Mongolia* was commanded by Captain Rice, who thought at the time that the hostile craft had been sunk. It was later reported that the periscope had been smashed and the commander killed but that the submarine had not been sunk.

Q.—What was the first American force in actual war service?

A.—A flotilla of American U-boat destroyers under Admiral William S. Sims arrived at Queenstown May 4, 1917, and went into immediate service.

Q.—Who is the ranking officer of the American Navy?

A.—Admiral W. S. Benson, Chief of Naval Operations. Next in rank is Admiral Mayo, Commander-in-Chief of the United States Atlantic Fleet.

Q.—What is the difference between dreadnaughts and old-time battleships?

A.—The old-time battleship, which was considered the most tremendous thing afloat only ten years before the war, would hardly rank as a "cruiser" now against a modern American battleship of the first line (or dreadnaught).

Where the old-time American battleship carried only four great guns, the modern dreadnaught type carries from eight to twelve. Where the old-time battleship's great guns were twelve-inch diameter in the bore, the modern dreadnaught carries guns that are 14 and 16 inches.

Dreadnaughts also are immensely superior in speed. The dreadnaught type has not less than 21 knots speed—that is, 24 land-miles an hour. The old-time battleship did not exceed 18 knots at its best. In addition, the armor of a dreadnaught is thousands of tons heavier than that of the old battleship type.

Q.—Do our dreadnaughts carry as big guns as British ships?

A.—The very latest dreadnaught type of our ships—the all-big-gun ship, as American naval experts prefer to call it—will carry the largest naval guns afloat, for they will have 16-inch guns mounted three in a turret. The navy is building a gun now of the same diameter but of still greater length and powder-chamber capacity. Armed with a main battery consisting entirely of these guns—from eight to twelve to a single ship—our American big-gun ships will actually be armed more tremendously than our big coast fortifications were ten years ago.

Q.—Is the battle-cruiser a battleship or is it a new kind of vessel?

A.—It is a very new type of vessel, produced by the efforts of naval constructors to design a kind of ship that should be mighty enough to fight every vessel except a dreadnaught, and at the same time be so swift that it could escape from dreadnaughts. The result has been something that most naval constructors hardly expected—a ship that is a distinct hybrid type. It is neither dreadnaught nor cruiser, yet it has something of both.

Q.—Is it heavily armed?

A.—It carries guns so huge that a few years ago no constructor would have dared to suggest mounting them even on battleships. Its speed is so great that it actually is greater than that of the swift little torpedo destroyers of a few years ago, and yet, despite this speed, it is simply monstrous with armor-belting—so much so that it has turned out that a battle-cruiser, while inferior to a dreadnaught, has some possible chance of fighting off a dreadnaught in any running fight that gives the battle-cruiser searoom enough to choose and maintain its distance.

This does not mean, however, that a battle-cruiser commander will deliberately undertake to fight a first-class dreadnaught. The battle-cruiser's business is to avoid dreadnaughts and smash everything else.

Q.—Are there any battle-cruisers in the American Navy?

A.—Yes. During 1914 and 1915 American naval experts were doubtful about the value of the type, and leaned to the belief that dreadnaughts probably would be the

best part of a big navy. This belief in the superiority of dreadnaughts remains justified, but the naval operations in the North Sea have demonstrated the immense value of heavy ships with vast speeds in addition.

We are now building battle-cruisers with speeds of 35 knots—40.3 statute or land miles an hour! These battle-cruisers are at least 14 knots (16 miles) faster than our best battleships—which means that if a battle-cruiser and a dreadnaught were to begin a fight at maximum gun-range apart, the battle-cruiser could run completely out of gun-range in less than two minutes.

Q.—What were the expert criticisms of the battle-cruiser type?

A.—The chief criticism was that they were heavier than was necessary against inferior ships (armored cruisers, etc.), and yet so inferior to dreadnaughts that they represented wasted power. Technically, this criticism was sound, but it "stacked up" against the actual fact that the two big belligerents (Germany and Great Britain) did use battle-cruisers, and that, therefore, any navy that wanted to maintain its rank had also to produce battle-cruisers. Furthermore, the big feature of the battle-cruiser—speed—has proved in fleet actions to be something of enormous importance, almost ranking with gun-fire itself as an actual part of combat.

Q.—How do our battle-cruisers compare with the foreign ones?

A.—The latest type of American battle-cruiser, on which construction is being hurried now, is a ship of 35,000 tons with 35 knots speed. This type, of which six are to be set afloat, is 5,000 tons heavier and 13 knots faster than the *Tiger* type of Great Britain, which was recognized as the biggest battle-cruiser afloat in 1914 and 1915.

It is, also, larger and faster than the *Queen Elizabeth* type of super-dreadnaught, and carries almost as heavy a turret-battery.

Q.—Why do we never hear of torpedo boats?

A.—The torpedo boat has vanished from modern navies. It was a terror to the imagination of naval commanders up to about the time of the Spanish-American War, but it never proved itself. At the naval battle of Santiago de Cuba the last attempt in history by torpedo boats was made when the Spanish torpedo boats *Pluton* and *Terror* emerged from the harbor with the other Spanish ships and were sunk almost instantly by the United States ship *Gloucester*—a converted steam-yacht!

Q.—If the torpedo boat has vanished, why have we so many torpedo-boat destroyers?

A.—They are torpedo-boat destroyers only in name, and hardly even in name. It is true that they were built originally to destroy torpedo boats; but they have remained to fill a distinct naval place of their own. They are the "legs" of the fighting navy, and they form an incessantly flying guard for its armored ship squadrons.

Immensely fast, well armed with quick-fire rifled cannon as well as with many torpedo-tubes (both deck and under-water), they are formidable little war-vessels. Battles between destroyer flotillas have occurred many times in the great war, because these swift ships have practically taken over the monopoly of marine patrol, scouting and general sea-guard duty. They are known simply as "destroyers" now, and the original duty for which they were designed is practically forgotten.

Q.—Does "tonnage" in a naval vessel refer to internal capacity?

A.—No. The word "tonnage" means two entirely different things in naval usage and in commercial usage. The tonnage of a merchant ship really has nothing at all to do with weight. It is a measure of internal capacity pure and simple.

The word "tonnage," describing the size of a warship, on the other hand, does actually and very specifically refer to weight. When we say, for example, that a dreadnaught is of 30,000 tons, we mean that the ship when afloat displaces that weight of water.

Q.—Is any system used in naming the small ships added since the war?

A.—It has been impossible to do so. A number of the newly built motor-driven scout vessels are named "Submarine Chaser No. So-and-so," but most of the vessels have had to be named hit or miss.

The converted yachts largely retain their original names. The transports bear miscellaneous names, ranging from *Prairie* to *Hancock* (the latter being named for the noted General Hancock). The naval tugs mostly have Indian names, such as *Choctaw, Iroquois, Navajo*, etc., but there are many exceptions to this rule, since the war-expansion.

Q.—What kind of warships have we the most of?

A.—Destroyers form the biggest numerical part of the American Navy. In 1917, when the war began, we had on the list more than 60 destroyers of the type known as "sea-going"—that is, true warships which can cruise over seas like any other warship. Our newest and biggest ones approach the tonnage of the early American cruisers of the White Squadron, and in speed, rapidity of gun-fire and offensive power generally they would actually outmatch any of those early cruisers in a ship-to-ship fight.

In addition we have more than a score of secondary destroyers—vessels not sufficiently powerful or with a sufficient coal capacity to carry war over seas, but very good ships for coast work, for which reason they are known as "coast torpedo vessels."

In the third line we have another score and more of torpedo boats. This is the old, original type of small craft, which was supplanted for battle purposes by the bigger destroyers.

Adding the many big destroyers that have been launched since the war began (whose number it is not permissible to state) we thus have a really powerful fleet of this type alone.

Q.—What is the size of our greatest all-big-gun ships? Are they bigger than the Germans'?

A.—They are positively bigger than any that the Germans had in the beginning of the war, and our experts believe that they are bigger than any in the German Navy to-day. We believe, with very fair foundation for the belief, that our all-big-gun ships average 25 per cent more in magnitude than the best German dreadnaughts.

When war began, we had under construction five all-big-gun ships (what the British and German navies would call super-dreadnaughts) of 32,000 tons, with twelve 14-inch turret guns and armor belting 14 to 18 inches thick.

Appropriations were granted after the war declaration for four ships of 32,500 tons, carrying eight 16-inch turret guns; and hardly had naval constructors achieved this daring conception, before naval science leaped forward and at one stroke made possible the design of four monsters of 40,000 tons, mounting twelve 16-inch turret guns.

These are the mightiest ships ever designed for any navy in the history of the world.

Q.—Why do colliers accompany warships?

A.—Though modern warships can carry an enormous amount of fuel (coal or oil), they never can have too much, for modern sea operations entail not only enormous cruising radius, but they demand such extreme speed that fuel is used up in incredible quantities. Each extra knot of speed demands an increased consumption of fuel, rising in extraordinary ratio. Therefore, every modern fleet is accompanied by ships that are loaded to every inch of capacity with coal or oil.

Q.—How do fuel ships load their fuel into warships at sea?

A.—Fuel ships are genuine floating machinery depots. The ocean, even on the calmest day that ever was, is in heavy motion. Even when there are no storm waves at all, there is a very big "heave"—mile-long undulations so great that the biggest warship rolls and pitches and rises and falls. To attempt to lay two ships side by side would inevitably smash them both. Therefore, the only way to fuel a warship at sea is to maintain a safe distance between the warship and the supply ship and send the fuel across the space of sea by machinery. The fuel ships have huge towers of interlaced iron, and from these steel cables are sent across to the warship. Electrical machinery sends traveling coal-receptacles back and forth.

Q.—Are our sailors really among the best gunners of the world?

A.—Yes. This is due largely to the fact that we were ahead of other nations (even of Great Britain) in realizing that naval gunnery was not at all what it should be, or what it might be made. We learned a drastic lesson in the battle of Santiago de Cuba. Although our ships smashed the Spanish ships, an actual count and analysis of hits, as compared with the amount of gun-fire, showed that

the percentage of hits was astonishingly meager. This was especially so in the case of the big-gun fire. Very few big-gun projectiles went home. The result was a great increase in American target practice at battle ranges. It was enormously expensive, but it paid.

Q.—Can American naval gunners hit something with every shot of a big gun?

A.—By no means. No navy has succeeded in getting anywhere near such a record. In the winter practice in the Caribbean Sea, off the American naval base of Guantanamo, Cuba, our ships made records which are accepted as being very remarkable. Firing at "battle ranges"—that is, at ranges not less than from 4,000 yards to 7,000 yards (2¼ to 4 statute miles) the all-big-gun battleships averaged 21 per cent of hits at medium battle range and 7 per cent of hits at long battle range. The total average for all the types of ships at medium battle range was 11 per cent.

Q.—Is that percentage really good?

A.—It must be remembered that the ships were going at top speed when the firing was done. This means that the ranges were changing every second and the turret crews had to fire at the word of command.

You must remember also that one single clean hit by a 14-inch or 16-inch shell at medium battle range is likely to wreck a dreadnaught, and, under any circumstances, will be pretty sure to cripple it, either putting a turret out of commission, dismantling its elaborate system of electric transmission or starting a fire.

Q.—What do American warships cost?

A.—The cost varies very widely with conditions of labor and prices of raw materials. The *Pennsylvania*, one of our very modern all-big-gun dreadnaught type battleships, cost almost $12,000,000, without its guns. The hull and machinery cost 7½ millions alone. The armor cost 4 millions.

A highly modern destroyer, such as the *Ericsson*, cost $874,000, without its guns or torpedoes, and a big fleet submarine of the L type cost a little more than $525,000.

Q.—Are most of our ships coal-burners or oil-burners?

A.—All our modern ships are oil-burners. Indeed, if it were not for the fact that there still is some difficulty in supplying adequate amounts of oil, coal-burning warships might be said to have gone wholly out of date. The Secretary of the Navy said in his report of December 1, 1916, that "it may be stated that the scouts, destroyers and battle-cruisers authorized by the last naval appropriation act could not be built if coal were used for fuel."

Q.—How much oil does a fighting navy consume?

A.—In active service (meaning active fighting, which kept the big ships well under motion for a good period) the oil-burning vessels of our navy at its present magnitude would require at least three million barrels in a year. This, probably, is a minimum estimate for such a theoretical condition.

Actually, even in a year of great activity, the big ship fleets would lie at bases for a good part of the time or cruise at such slow speeds that consumption of oil would be kept down.

However, even at best, the fuel demands are great. In 1915 the American Navy burned 521,000 barrels of oil, much more than a thousand barrels a day. In 1916 it burned 842,000 barrels, or 2,300 barrels a day.

Q.—What are the tall tower-like skeleton things on our new warships?

A.—They are the so-called "cage masts" which have replaced the old-fashioned "fighting top" mast. The latter was simply a big hollow steel mast with a circular staircase inside leading to the fighting top—a lightly armored platform for observers and men handling light rapid-fire guns.

The "cage mast" is a genuine tower, made of lattice steel, and it is a characteristic of our modern ships.

The old-fashioned fighting top mast was liable to come down in ruin if one big shell struck it. The principle of the cage mast is that its web-like construction will enable it to stand even though a large number of shells plow holes through it.

Q.—Is a knot the same as a mile?

A.—No. A knot is a nautical mile, and is 6,080 feet. The mile, as known to

landsmen, is the statute mile, 5,280 feet. A ship steaming 30 knots an hour would cover 34½ of our land-miles in that hour. For rough calculation it is customary to figure a knot as equalling 1 1-7 land-miles.

Q.—What is meant by a "naval screen"?

A.—It means the sending out of scout cruisers and other very fast vessels with enough cruising radius and power to sweep far ahead and abeam of the main fleet (sometimes half a thousand miles ahead) to prevent the scouts and cruisers of the enemy fleet from finding out anything. If the screening vessels are sufficiently powerful, they may sink or drive back the enemy scouts. If they are weaker than the enemy, they try either to draw them off on a wild-goose chase, or else they race back toward the protection of their own fleet, sending wireless warnings as they go.

Q.—What are territorial waters?

A.—Territorial waters are the harbors and indentations of a nation's coasts, and, in addition, the open sea to a limit of three marine miles (6,000 yards) from the whole line of coast. This distance of three miles was fixed long ago, merely because at that time the utmost range of a coast cannon was about that distance. It has often been proposed to extend this territorial zone to ten or more miles, but the three-mile limit remains in force. Within that distance of a neutral coast, enemies may not fight or take prizes, etc.

Q.—Why are the German naval guns not so big as those of the American and British navies?

A.—The German naval principle was to depend on the very great power (ballistic property) which they deemed was assured by the Krupp method. They believed that this justified their reliance on 12-inch guns against the 14-inch guns which were being mounted in increasing numbers in other navies. But after the arrival of 15-inch guns in the British *Queen Elizabeth* class, the Germans also began to design 15-inch-gun ships. It appears reasonable to assume that our 16-inch turret batteries would heavily outclass the German ships of any date earlier than 1916.

Q.—Does the term "all-big-gun ship" mean that these monsters carry no other guns?

A.—No. They carry plenty of other guns—rapid-fire guns, machine guns, fighting-mast guns, anti-aircraft guns, automatics, and in addition a thousand or more rifles. Nor is that all. Peering from armored ports on each side are the "little brothers" of the great turret guns—a row along each side of the ship, under deck, of 5- and 6-inch guns. There are as many as twenty and more of these guns in the "secondary battery"—a battery which would have been considered as being super-armament for a cruiser of President Cleveland's time when we began our navy by building the famous "White Squadron." The heaviest ship of that squadron carried no guns bigger than 8-inch, and only a few as big as that.

Q.—What is the battleship's most dangerous opponent?

A.—Apart from its natural opponent, which is another battleship, the torpedo remains the one great menace to the battleship. In every engagement during the great war, whenever battleships (dreadnaughts) or battle-cruisers took part, they were harassed and endangered immensely by destroyer squadrons that maneuvered under thick smoke-clouds and launched torpedoes at long ranges.

Several big armored ships that might have survived the gunfire of their equals were sunk by the little craft. But, on the other hand, it is undeniable that the torpedo has failed to prove itself such "sure death" as its enthusiastic supporters had foretold.

Q.—Are some American naval ships not named for flowers?

A.—No. The ships you think of are Treasury Department vessels belonging to the lighthouse service. They are known as lighthouse tenders and are partly under naval rules—almost wholly so during war. These tenders bear such names as *Myrtle, Golden Rod, Maple,* etc.

Q.—Did an American vessel fire on an Italian warship after the United States entered the war?

A.—Late in the summer of 1917 the United States gunboat *Nashville* was in the Mediterranean on cruising duty when a submarine emerged suddenly. The *Nashville* broke out a signal which should have received an instant reply from a friendly vessel. No reply was made and the *Nashville* opened fire, killing one of the submarine's crew. Then there were signals which showed that the submarine was Italian.

Q.—Just what kind of a warship is a cruiser?

A.—In the old days of sail, and even in the early days of steam, almost any warship that was on active cruising duty was referred to as a cruiser. When steam and armor-plating came in, the term became strictly limited to certain types of ships, fairly large, swifter than other types, more or less protected, but not as heavy as the real armor-clads.

Now, with the vast and phenomenally swift increase of our navy, the term has begun once more to be very wide. We have powerful ships known as armored cruisers, ships almost as big, but much less powerful, known as scout cruisers, and very light ships (scarcely protected at all except for a thin plating of extra steel around vital parts) known as light cruisers. In addition we have little motor-driven patrol vessels that are called scout cruisers, though in former days they would have been known merely as patrol-boats.

Then there is the new type of ship known as battle-cruiser, which, actually, is bigger than the battleships of a few years ago, mightily armor-belted and laden with turret-guns.

Thus we may say that the term "cruiser," used by itself, has quite lost any specific meaning now.

Q.—At what range can a gun fired from a battleship hit an object?

A.—In the naval battle between von Spee and Craddock, off the coast of Chile, the two squadrons opened fire on each other with deadly effect at 12,000 yards. In the running fight off the Falkland Islands, most of the execution was done at a range of 15,000 yards (8½ statute miles).

Q.—Does the armor protect modern battleships absolutely?

A.—No. It protects them only relatively. That is, at extreme fighting ranges these modern ships can receive the fire from the heaviest naval guns (12-, 14- and 15-inch guns) and survive. But when the range falls to from 6,000 to 4,000 yards the armor-piercing shell from big naval guns can perforate the armor on super-dreadnaughts.

In warship construction, armor and gun have run a race for many years, with the gun always keeping a little ahead.

Q.—How thick is armor on American ships?

A.—On the heaviest all-big-gun ships the armor belting is composed of steel plates 16 and 18 inches thick. A rough and ready naval saying is that armor must always be at least the same as the diameter of the gun that may attack it. Thus, 14-inch armor for ships that may have to fight 14-inch guns, etc.

Q.—What service is required of a naval hospital apprentice, first class?

A.—The Hospital Apprentice First Class renders services required from a hospital orderly, with a training of six months in one of the four Hospital Corps Schools. He is enjoined to "study the methods of the Nurse Corps and learn all he can about the care of the sick." At sea during the past few months the hospital corpsmen have had very hard work.

At shore stations beyond the seas the hospital corpsmen have been kept a little over the usual 18-month period. They may serve today on Asiatic stations, in Europe, and with marine forces on expeditionary duty. Physical and litter drill and first-aid instruction has been given to all hospital corpsmen.

Q.—Have we established marine zones for coast defense?

A.—Yes. An executive order of April 13, 1917, established defensive areas at the entrance to chief harbors of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, Gulf of Mexico and insular Colonies. No vessel may enter the limits of these areas except by permission of the harbor patrol and by following certain definite routes. No vessels not belonging to the United States Navy may enter at night. Vessels disobeying are subject to detention for investigation.

Q.—Why does a sailor wear a black scarf?

A.—This scarf is worn in memory of the sailors who have died in previous wars. There are four stripes woven in the edge of this scarf, representing the four great wars in which our Navy has participated.

Q.—Why are a sailor's trousers made wide at the bottom?

A.—There are two reasons. One is that in landing through surf from ships'

boats, sailors must be ready instantly to leap into the sea when the boat gets into shoal water, to drag it up before the breakers swamp it. To do this, it is necessary that they shall be able to roll up their trousers above their knees with ease.

The other reason is that one of the daily duties aboard ship is to "swab decks," and that is always done barefoot and barelegged when the weather permits. The very wide, flaring trousers are, therefore, a matter of efficiency.

Q.—What is the significance of the thirteen buttons on a sailor's trousers?

A.—These represent the thirteen original states.

Q.—What is meant in the navy by the word "brig"?

A.—It is ancient navy slang for the ship's prison. Every naval vessel has a group of cells for offenders.

Q.—What other navy slang is there?

A.—There is hardly anything in the Navy from the captain to the hold that is not known by a nickname. The captain is always called the "skipper" (except before his face or before an officer). A sailor is known as a "Gob." Hash is always called "Ballast." A battleship is known as a "battle-wagon." The hammock is called a "dream-bag". Leaving the ship without leave is "jumping ship." An anchor is a "mud-hook." The electrician or wireless man is called "Sparks." The ship's carpenter is always called "Chips."

Q.—How has the wireless changed war on the sea?

A.—In the old days an admiral sailed away with his fleet, and was entirely responsible for its movements. Each individual ship, in addition, sent on special service, had to rely entirely upon itself. One of the greatest difficulties was that of communication between the ships and different detachments of fleets. Important actions might take place, but it was often weeks before the admiralty knew anything about it. Now the governments are in actual touch with every warship, no matter in what part of the world it may be. Every torpedo boat, even, has its wireless installation and can receive the admiral's orders direct. The submarines are similarly equipped. This makes it possible for the great battleships to lie far away from the coasts and yet be always available when wanted.

Q.—Do aeroplanes have wireless?

A.—The most up-to-date have, but the range is small; ample, though, for scout ing work. Owing to the noise of the motors it is impossible to receive messages on them, because aerial messages have to be read by sound. Therefore they can only send. Dirigibles, however, are fitted with wireless, which has a wide range, and can both send and receive.

Q.—What is meant by "jamming" the wireless?

A.—"Jamming" is generally resorted to by weaker ships trying to escape. They send a storm of electric waves through the air with such rapidity and strength that the pursuing ships cannot get messages of warning through to other vessels of their fleet.

The German cruisers *Goeben* and *Breslau*, which were apparently penned in the Adriatic by a big squadron of British ships, jammed the messages of the vessels that sighted them, and did it so successfully that they succeeded in getting out of the straits of Otranto and running into the shelter of the Dardanelles.

The *Karlsruhe*, when exchanging shots with the British cruiser *Bristol*, during a running fight in West Indian waters early in the war, also succeeded in jamming radiograms so that the British cruisers *Lancaster*, *Essex*, *Berwick* and *Suffolk*, which were all in those waters, did not succeed in getting the *Karlsruhe's* location in time to come up with her. The result was that she escaped into the South Atlantic and conducted disastrous raids on British commerce for many months.

WEAPONS OF WAR

Q.—What rifle are the Americans using?

A.—The standard American military rifle is the Springfield army rifle, so named because made in the government armory, Springfield, Mass. Enough of these were on hand to arm fully the expeditionary forces that went to France in 1917. When the first draft went into the home camps, the government had about 600,000 Springfields. However, because several American munition works had plants adapted for making the British Enfield, it was decided to adapt that model to our needs and the rifle thus produced for our army is known as Model 1917, Modified Enfields.

Q.—What is our rifle production?

A.—The U. S. Official bulletin of June 12, 1918, said "the War Department authorizes the statement that rifle production has passed the 1½ million mark. Since the United States entered war with Germany the Ordnance Department has produced 1,568,661 rifles. Of these 1,140,595 were model 1917 (modified Enfields), 176,796 were model 1903 Springfields (in addition to 600,000 in use), and 251,270 were Russian models. At the end of September, 2,437,297 rifles of all types had been produced.

Q.—Is this enough for our big army?

A.—Only about 50 per cent of the soldiers in any army carry rifles. The War Department says that in August, 1918, we had enough for 2 million men with allowance for wastage. The daily average production in June, 1918, was 7,941.

Q.—Was not the Enfield of a different caliber?

A.—Yes; but the machinery was changed to make the Enfields take Springfield ammunition. The British rifle was .303 caliber. The Springfield is .30 caliber. The magazine of both is loaded with a single motion by simply shoving in a "clip" with the requisite number of cartridges. The Springfield clip holds six.

Q.—Does the Springfield rifle shoot as fast as one can pull the trigger?

A.—No. The Browning automatic machine-gun rifle and some patterns of sporting rifles shoot that way, but no regulation army rifles are made on that principle. The army rifles are repeaters, but the soldier must throw each new cartridge into the breech by pulling down a little lever. It is an almost instantaneous operation.

Q.—Why do armies not use automatic rifles?

A.—Partly because the automatic rifle has a very much more complicated mechanism than the army rifle. Partly because the army rifle gets very hard usage, making it essential that the parts be as few and simple as possible. Another important objection to the automatic principle is that soldiers waste cartridges blindly once they begin firing.

Q.—How many machine guns have we?

A.—Announcement authorized August 17, 1918, by the War Department was that production of machine guns had passed the 100,000 mark, 108,973 machine guns of all types having been made, inspected and passed since the country entered war up to August 10. Of these 30,226 (nearly one-third) were Brownings (11,187 heavy and 19,039 light automatic).

Q.—How did we produce heavy artillery?

A.—Sixteen enormous plants were either re-tooled or built "from the ground up" to manufacture mobile artillery cannon. Quantity production began in summer, 1918.

Q.—What weapons in this war are American inventions?

A.—The submarine (discovered by an American, Bushnell, in 1775), the torpedo,

the Gatling gun, the Maxim automatic machine gun, the Wright airplanes, and the Liberty motor are some of the important contributions of American inventive genius to the armies of the Allies.

Q.—Is there an explosive that turns men yellow?

A.—Yes. It is an explosive with a name almost as weird as are its effects. It is made of a mixture of T. N. T. and a chemical compound called hexanitrodiphenylamine. It stains the skin a bright yellow color which cannot be washed off. It also causes highly irritant skin eruptions to workers, but they are not dangerous.

Q.—What is meant by von Mackensen's "phalanx"?

A.—A wedge-like tactic of General von Mackensen's army of attack around Cracow (Russian Poland) in the campaign of 1915. By the phalanx tactics, his army was fashioned into a mobile battering ram, battering its way by wide front breaches, opened by the heavy guns, through the Russian line. The Russian line, which was of long, thin formation, was pierced and crumbled under the wedge-like ram. The tactic was used largely on the Eastern front, where the opposing lines were of great length.

Q.—Why is a big gun called "Big Bertha"?

A.—It is a slang term invented by the German soldiers (and adopted by the opposing armies) to characterize large Krupp cannon, because the present owner of the Krupp works is a woman, Bertha.

Q.—What sort of weapons were utilized before cannon came into use?

A.—There were many engines designed to fire arrows or hurl stones by mechanical means. The machines finally produced were very powerful, and for a long time held their own easily against gunpowder. They worked on the catapult principle. One favorite weapon was a gigantic cross-bow, the predecessor of the cannon of today, and another was the ballista, which was the "howitzer" of the Romans. These weapons were used for siege warfare, and seldom appeared on the battlefield. Small catapults were occasionally used in the field, but the ballista was only used when attacking towns and fortresses. It was large and heavy. The largest threw a stone weighing 90 pounds. The giant cross-bow weighed between 80 and 90 pounds, and would send a 26-inch arrow weighing half a pound close on 500 yards, but its man-killing capacity was limited to 400 yards. Other ancient weight-throwing weapons were modeled on the type of the catapult or the ballista. Then there were battering rams and contrivances for protecting men attacking walls and the like.

Q.—How were the catapults operated?

A.—The giant cross-bow was bent by drawing back the "bow-string" of rope or sinews with powerful levers. The ballista was a huge beam or plank set in a heavy platform, and it worked on the principle of a modern gun-trigger. To "set" it, it was hauled backward to firing position by men who operated stout hawsers with levers or winches. When this tension was released, the plank was jerked forward with vast violence by a "spring" made of ropes or sinews that had been twisted to the utmost degree possible.

Q.—What weapons did soldiers use during recent wars?

A.—At Waterloo the British used the old Brown Bess flint firelock. In the Crimea they had the same gun, converted to use caps. Rifles based more or less on the Mauser mechanism are now most generally used. In fact, the French Army is the only one which has stuck to the far less convenient tube magazine. This French Lebel magazine rifle is an excellent weapon, but the mechanism is more liable to get out of order than that of the more simple Mauser. The Mannlicher rifle is used by the Austrians, the Italians, the Greeks, the Bulgarians and the Dutch. The Mauser is used by the Germans, the Belgians, the Spanish, the Portuguese and the Turks. The British use the Lee-Enfield, the Russians the Nagant. Before we entered war, the American army rifle was the Springfield.

Q.—When was a breech-loading rifle used for the first time in war?

A.—In the Austro-Prussian war, of 1866, the Prussians used what was called a *Zündnadel Gewehr* (literally meaning "fire-pin gun"). They used the same gun in the Franco-German war of 1870-71, but the French had a better weapon, the chasse-pot. The German artillery was

better than the French, but the latter had the mitrailleuse, the forerunner of modern quick-firing guns.

Q.—What is the meaning of the word "camouflage"?

A.—The French word, freely translated, means "to conceal." The term was taken over from the French slang word signifying the "make-up" of an actor. It was first adopted by the soldiers in the field, who have been wonderfully apt at devising phraseology to fit the novel aspects of the great war.

Q.—How is camouflage used by the navy?

A.—Strange designs resembling cubist pictures are painted on the hull and superstructure of merchantmen and troopships. The colors are gray, light blue and drab, often dotted with pink to blend with the atmosphere. Imitation billows are painted near the water line, which naturally make the vessel look much smaller than it really is. One large steamship recently came into an Atlantic port with a picture of a destroyer painted on its side, with all the rest of the boat painted in light gray. Since the destroyer is the great enemy of the submarine it is obvious why the merchantman wanted to be mistaken for a destroyer.

Q.—How can such bright colors as pink conceal a ship?

A.—There are two principles of camouflage. One is the principle of concealment, or "low visibility," as it is officially termed. Under it, ships are painted in drab tints to make them blend against the more or less gray background of sea and sky.

The other principle, known as that of the "dazzle," entirely abandons the theory of concealment and recognizes the fact that every ship, no matter how painted, must inevitably stand out boldly and black when seen against the sun. Therefore, this second principle of camouflaging accepts visibility, and aims to paint ships in such broken designs and falsified prospective lines that a submarine observer cannot make any accurate estimate of the distance or direction of the vessel and shall thus be much hampered in laying his course for it or firing at it.

Q.—What are the methods of land "camouflage"?

A.—It is done by painting, by screens, by boughs of trees, by wisps of raffia tied into nets—like backstop nets on a tennis court. Stacks of munitions, garages, battery emplacements are covered by canvas, painted like the ground, so they cannot be discovered by spying aviators. Canals, roadways, everything is camouflaged. Guns are hidden beneath a mattress of interwoven leaves supported by poles. Animated stacks of straw contain observers who inch forward wherever possible, with telephone wires trailing behind them. Immense dummy cannon, mounted in conspicuous places, with stuffed men, draw the fire and thus waste the ammunition of the enemy. Life-size scenery showing a straight railroad bed conceals an important turn leading to a supply train. Whole trains, backed on sidings loaded with supplies, have been "painted out" of the landscape; buildings, bridges and all the necessary impedimenta, which go to supply the needs of vast armies, have been lost to the enemy airmen by the scientific use of broken color.

Q.—How did "camouflage" originate?

A.—Because the aeroplane in war makes impossible the massing of men, guns or supplies behind the lines in the open, in scattered sectors along fighting lines the men who were in artillery or supply soon began attempts at concealment of the great guns and supply wagons. This was done crudely at first, with tree branches, canvas screens, etc. So successful were these efforts that "camouflage" quickly became a definite and important principle of defense and artists of all sorts were withdrawn from the trenches and formed into a "Camouflage Corps."

Q.—Does "camouflage" service require special qualifications?

A.—Yes. "Camoufleurs" are, almost without exception, artists, sign painters, scene painters, sculptors, mechanics or carpenters. The work demands a high degree of imagination, initiative and individual cleverness in planning. The "camoufleur" must learn to see with the "bird's eye," and, to obtain the right perspective, must fly over the fighting lines with the aviator, taking note of the needs of the sector in which he is engaged, and his work is always on the firing line, so he needs resourcefulness and courage as well.

Q.—Are there any American "camoufleurs"?

A.—Yes. At General Leonard Wood's suggestion, American artists formed a

corps, of which H. Ledyard Towle is the head. General Wood is quoted as stating that each training camp must organize from its own members a "camouflage" corps.

Q.—What is tolite?

A.—That is one of the many names for trinitrotoluol. T.N.T., Trotyl, Tritolo, Trilite and Tritol are some other names of the same substance. It is very safe, for it requires a heavy detonation to make it explode. It can be melted and poured into shells, without any danger. Water does not harm it at all. Yet when it does explode, its violence is terrific.

Q.—Why could not gun-cotton be used in the shells?

A.—It explodes far too easily. A shell charged with it would generally explode in the gun owing to the shock of the explosion of the propulsive ammunition. Picric acid and T.N.T. do not explode easily, hence they are suitable for shells, but they could not be used as propulsive ammunition.

Q.—What is black powder made of?

A.—Nitre, sulphur and charcoal.

Q.—How is gun-cotton made?

A.—Glycerine, nitric and sulphuric acids and cotton.

Q.—To what extent is smokeless powder used in the war?

A.—Only smokeless powder is used as a propulsive nowadays. Black powder not only dirties the gun's rifling, but it is less powerful. Above all, it immediately discloses the position of the gun, to hide which elaborate precautions are taken.

Q.—What do we need to make our explosives?

A.—Gun-cotton, nitroglycerine, trinitrotoluol (T.N.T.), etc., all compounds, the manufacture of which in this country was in its infancy at the outbreak of the European war. One of the needed important chemicals is sulphuric acid, which is obtained from sulphur and from pyrites, or "fool's gold." The principal source of the latter substance has hitherto been the Spanish mines, but war has served to direct attention to Cuba, the New England States, Alabama, etc.

Sulphur is obtained in considerable quantities from Louisiana. Scarcely secondary in importance is nitric acid. It is obtained from Chile saltpeter.

One of the results of the British embargo has been to cut off Germany's supplies of this substance, forcing her to obtain nitric acid wholly from the air by expensive processes.

Toluol and ammonia, both ingredients of high explosives, are obtained from gas and coke, distillations of which also lie at the basis of the aniline dye industry.

Q.—Are we making Toluol or T.N.T.?

A.—Yes. By the beginning of 1918 American by-product coke ovens were producing about 11,000,000 gallons of toluol, and the quantity was increasing. A difficulty is that the construction of enough by-product coke retorts requires a year. Gas companies can, however, equip their plants to remove the toluol from gas.

Q.—Is the same powder used to propel shells as to explode them?

A.—No. Propulsive and explosive powders are quite different. For propulsive purposes black powder was at one time universally used, but has now been entirely discarded. Gelatinized mixtures of nitroglycerine and gun-cotton are now used exclusively. For filling the explosive shells picric acid and trinitrotoluol (T.N.T.) are used. For a detonator, fulminate of mercury is practically the only compound employed.

Q.—Why cannot one kind of powder be used for everything?

A.—For a variety of highly technical reasons. Briefly and very generally, because the "explosive" powder that bursts shells is so powerful that it would be liable to burst the guns if it were used as a propulsive powder. Furthermore, the high explosives generate gases of chemical composition that would "erode" gun chambers and gun bores—that is, eat them away. Again, the high explosives explode too quickly, whereas to get the utmost range, a shell must be hurled out of the gun by a "slow-burning" powder. Smokeless propulsive powder is slow-burning—as compared with the high explosives.

Q.—What materials are required for explosive powders?

A.—Picric acid is made from a product of coal-tar called phenol and nitric and

sulphuric acids. T.N.T. is produced by similarly "nitrating" toluene, also a coal-tar product. The disadvantage of picric acid is that it attacks most metals, hence a shell filled with it has to be protected in its interior with some material on which picric acid will not act. Trinitrotoluol, on the other hand, suffers from no such disadvantage. Picric acid, however, is mixed with nitrate of ammonium, charcoal, aluminium and trinitrotoluol. The resultant powder is called ammonal. It is largely used by the Austrians, and is very safe. It does not always explode, though, for it is apt to become moist.

Q.—How much T.N.T. does a modern army need?

A.—It has been estimated that the American mobile artillery (heavy and light field artillery) might require as much as 2,000,000 gallons of toluol in a year.

Q.—How much cotton does Germany need for explosives?

A.—That is impossible to say, as we have no knowledge of the amount of explosives being made in Germany. We must not forget, however, that cotton is used only for propulsive ammunition and not as explosive for filling shells. To make one ton of gun-cotton, half a ton of cotton fiber is needed, roughly speaking. A German Mauser cartridge contains 48.4 grains of gun-cotton, to produce which would require something over 25 grains of cotton. Assuming that there are 3,000,000 men in the field, and that they average 10 rounds daily for each man, we would have an expenditure of 51 tons of cotton a day, or 18,600 tons a year, for rifles alone. If we assume that the expenditure on machine guns is about the same, we have a total of 36,000 tons a year. The average propulsive charge for field guns is, probably, 50 pounds. Assuming that the Germans are using 5,000 guns, and that each fires ten shots a day, this would demand 1,000 tons of gun-cotton, for which about 550 tons of cotton would be required, or, say, 200,000 tons a year. This, probably, is a large overestimate. These figures are purely speculative and have no value except as furnishing some basis for possible calculation.

Q.—Did Germany have cotton stored for war?

A.—It is assumed that Germany used some 100,000 tons of cotton annually for making 180,000 tons of gun-cotton. If she had stored this for the last five years before the war, she could have had at least 900,000 tons of gun-cotton available when the war started. During 1913 Germany and Austria imported in the ordinary way 560,000 tons of cotton. Undoubtedly a good deal of this could not have been transformed into manufactured articles, and thus would be available. During 1914 it is assumed that some 12,000 tons reached Germany *via* Sweden, and that she also got supplies *via* Holland and Italy, especially the latter. It was calculated at the time that Germany would have sufficient cotton to carry her through two years' war at any rate, and she may have been able to get hold of enough to last for three years. It would seem inevitable, however, that the time came in 1917, when lack of this important ingredient in the making of ammunition became a critical problem to Germany. A certain amount of cotton is produced in Turkey, but even if the cotton fields there were greatly developed since the war began, nothing like enough could be obtained from that source. In 1912 the total cotton output of Turkey was about 200,000 bales. As there are 400 pounds in a bale this means that the total production of Turkey was only 40,000 tons.

Q.—Is there no substitute for cotton?

A.—Cotton consists of cellulose, the chief constituent of wood, but cotton fiber appears to be the only form of cellulose adapted for making gun-cotton. There is always the possibility that under the stress of urgent need the German chemists have discovered a substitute for cotton, as they have for so many other things, but it is unlikely.

Q.—What is the biggest cannon used in war?

A.—Cannon calibers have increased progressively during the war. The gun of greatest length and power made its appearance in March, 1918, when the great German offensive broke through the British St. Quentin front and began the vast Battle of Picardy.

On March 24, projectiles began to fall into Paris, which was 64 miles from the very nearest German line on that date. The greatest range ever achieved by a gun before was 20 miles.

The largest American gun in 1918 was the 16-inch coast-defense rifle. It has a range of somewhat less than 20 miles.

The big gun with which the Germans so swiftly destroyed the fortifications of Liege and Namur was a 42-centimeter gun, meaning in inches that its caliber (the diameter of its muzzle) was 16½ inches. For a long time army officers could not credit that a mobile gun of such power could really exist.

This famous 42-centimeter weapon was on the howitzer order—that is, it did not fire its projectile with a fairly flat trajectory as the rifled cannon do, but discharged it by so-called high-angled fire: it was pointed toward the sky and thus sent its shell flying in a great arc.

Q.—Have the Allies a bigger gun than the German "Big Bertha"?

A.—The French recently built a mortar of 52 centimeters caliber as against the Germans' 42-centimeter gun. One of these guns was used by the French in the Verdun surprise attack of August, 1917. Two shells fired from this gun were sufficient to wreck Fort Malmaison.

This French 52-centimeter gun is, in our figures, a trifle under 20½-inch diameter.

Q.—Are solid cannon-balls used any more?

A.—Practically every projectile from every kind of cannon nowadays is an explosive shell—that is, a conical steel shell that has in its pointed head a large hollow chamber filled with high explosive. Some of these explosive shells have a contact primer in their points—a primer that explodes the charge when the projectile strikes. Most shells, however, are fitted with a time-fuse so set that the shell explodes in a certain number of seconds after it leaves the muzzle of the gun.

Q.—Is it possible to set a time-fuse accurately?

A.—Yes. A modern artillerist knows to the fraction of a second how long it requires for his projectile to go a certain distance. Range-finders and aeroplane observation (spotting) enable him to figure to the foot just how far away the target is. The time-fuse is set in the pointed snout of the shell, and adjusted just right with a key the moment before it is shoved into the gun.

Q.—Are the great twelve and fourteen-inch shells exploded by time-fuses?

A.—No. These huge shells are used chiefly against ships or against fortifications. They are made to explode on impact—by "percussion," as artillerists call it. There is a firing pin in the sharp point of the shell, and when the projectile strikes this pin is driven home and explodes fulminate of mercury, which, in turn, explodes (detonates) the big bursting charge.

In most cases these firing mechanisms in the big shells are so set that the projectile has time first to smash through the ship's armor, so that it shall explode inside.

Q.—What are time-fuses like?

A.—They are of a vast variety of designs. For many years there have been specialists in every army in the world who studied and designed little else but fuses. Some time-fuses are simply little contrivances that contain a powder-fuse of a determined length. This is lit by the discharge of the gun, and, at about the time that the projectile reaches its goal, the flame reaches the explosive charge. Other fuses are operated by little vanes that revolve as the projectile speeds through the air. Still others operate by clockwork mechanism.

Q.—What is the artillery equipment of the American Army?

A.—The War Department decided in 1917 on the practical adoption of the French 75-millimeter (2.955-inch) field gun; a continuance of 3-inch field guns (American pattern) for use in camps at home; Colts, Browning, Vickers-Maxim and Chauchat automatic machine guns; 4.7-inch field guns, 6.10-inch, 8-inch, 9.2-inch and 10.5-inch howitzers; Lewis machine guns for aeroplane work.

Q.—What is a howitzer?

A.—Its prototype is the ancient ballista of the Romans, a machine which hurled great stones in a mighty arc through the air, so that, vaulting the defending walls, they fell on the soldiers behind. That is to say, the attack came from above, whilst that of the catapult, the forerunner of the modern gun, came from the side. The howitzer of today is really a development of the mortar. It is a short piece of ordnance, designed, like the old ballista, to throw a heavy projectile so high into

the air that it can fall from above on objects behind cover, which would be quite safe from the ordinary high-velocity gun.

Q.—Does it require a heavy charge?

A.—A comparatively small charge is needed, just enough to propel a huge shell through the air. It is not the speed of the shell which does the damage, but the bursting of the large amount of high explosive in the shell itself. As all a howitzer need to do is to give a great shell a toss into the air, so to speak, it does not need to be a long or very powerful weapon, compared to a field or naval gun, which latter weapon must actually drive its projectile almost straight to its target.

Q.—How big is a howitzer?

A.—The latest German ones are no less than 16.5 inches, inside diameter. These guns are, of course, rifled, and load at the breech. We get some idea of the difference between howitzers and guns by comparing the two British six-inch weapons. The six-inch howitzer fires a steel shell weighing 122 lbs., including a lyddite bursting charge of 19 lbs., while the six-inch gun has a 100-lb. shell, and a 10-lb. lyddite bursting charge. The howitzer weighs 30 cwts., the gun 7 tons; the former is 7 feet 10 inches long, the latter 23 feet 3 inches.

Q.—What does the 16.5-inch howitzer weigh?

A.—They weigh about 14 tons and are about 18 feet long. The British 11-inch howitzer weighs 6 tons, and is 14 feet long.

Q.—Does the weight include the carriage?

A.—No; the gun only. The equipment of a 12-inch howitzer weighs about 27 tons; that of a 16.5-inch gun would probably be not far short of 50 tons. The carriage can, of course, be taken to pieces for transport purposes.

Q.—To transport a howitzer of this size must be a great task?

A.—So difficult is it that these weapons are used for siege purposes only. It is said they require specially prepared cement bases, and cannot be used accurately without them. The Germans have smaller howitzers, which they use in the field. A 12-inch howitzer weighs about 7 tons.

Q.—How are the great howitzers transported?

A.—The great howitzers are pulled by heavy motors called "caterpillars," a modified form of engine with its wheels encircled by an endless steel band, and driven by a petrol motor.

On the outbreak of the war, they were pulled by horses, but later mechanical transport was provided for them. First, "Foden steam wagons," a kind of automobile, were employed, but proved impractical.

Q.—How heavy a projectile would it throw?

A.—This also is not known. Its terrible effects have been seen, for these guns reduced the forts at Liége by smashing the steel cupolas of the defending cannon as if they had been egg shells. Four shots sufficed to put one of the Namur forts entirely out of action. As a six-inch naval gun fires a 100-lb. projectile, and a six-inch howitzer one of 120 lbs., we may assume that a 16.5-inch howitzer has a shell weighing at least a ton. (The 16.5 naval guns fire a projectile of 2,200 lbs.) A special explosive is said to be used, which has a terrible effect. In fact, all those wounded found in the forts after the shells had fallen there were deaf.

Q.—What is the range of a howitzer?

A.—The 11-inch howitzer has an effective range of five miles. The 16.5-inch will naturally have more than that. A shell from one of these guns might kill an entire company.

Q.—Is it true that these immense howitzers can only fire twenty times before wearing out?

A.—That is probably incorrect. We know that the great naval 12-inch guns can fire at least ninety rounds before wearing out. This comparatively short life is due to the tremendous heat and the gases generated by the explosion, which, in time, crack and corrode the rifling. As already mentioned, the function of a howitzer is to toss a huge shell into the air; a huge charge is not required, hence the life of a howitzer should be far longer than that of a naval gun.

Q.—Is a big cannon useless after it fires that limited number of shots?

A.—No. But it becomes inaccurate and no longer has full range. The trouble, however, is only with the inside of the bore, and this can be replaced in the ordnance works. It is known as putting in a new core. It is, of course, an operation requiring some time.

Q.—Does it take long to make a howitzer?

A.—Nothing like as long as to make a naval gun. The latter takes about eighteen months, working during the day only; it must be wire wound, a process which requires much time. Howitzers only take weeks, where the guns require months. It is the mounting which takes so long to make.

Q.—Could howitzers be used in naval warfare?

A.—No. It would be impossible to hit rapidly moving ships with them. The only vessels armed with such weapons are monitors, which are intended to attack land forces and fortifications.

Q.—Is the machine gun a cannon?

A.—No. Its barrel is practically a rifle barrel, except that it is heavier in weight. Its caliber is no larger than that of the infantry rifle. Every army tries to have its machine guns and its infantry rifles exactly alike in caliber, so that the same ammunition can be used for both.

Q.—How does a machine gun fire?

A.—It fires semi-automatically, or sometimes automatically. In some patterns the cartridges are fed into the breech from a revolving belt. In others, they are fed in a revolving disk.

Q.—How fast does a machine gun fire?

A.—So fast that the human senses of sight and hearing cannot perceive the separate shots. A modern machine gun fires about ten shots a second, or from 500 to 700 shots a minute.

Q.—What is machine-gun range?

A.—Its range is about a mile, but in action it usually is used at much shorter ranges than that. Fired at a target a mile away, most of its ammunition would be wasted.

Q.—Exactly what purpose does the machine gun serve?

A.—The same as that of the infantry rifle—that of killing men. These two are the firearms used by armies for that purpose, whereas cannon are used more largely for making positions untenable and thus routing large bodies of men.

Q.—Who invented the machine gun?

A.—The modern machine gun was invented by Richard Jordan Gatling. It was first used in the Civil War, and consisted of ten revolving barrels. The French in the Franco-Prussian War, also used a machine gun, the mitrailleuse, which was worked with a crank. The modern single-barrel machine guns are Vickers-Maxim, Benet-Mercier, Hotchkiss, Colt, Chauchat, Lewis and Browning.

Q.—What machine guns are used most?

A.—The British army uses Vickers-Maxim and Lewis largely. The French use Chauchat automatics. The American army has both Vickers-Maxim and Colt. The army adopted a new gun, the Browning. For aeroplane work and sea service, the Lewis gun has been adopted. The camps in the United States were supplied with some specimens of the French Chauchat, as well as with Lewis, Vickers-Maxim and Colt.

Q.—What is the Browning gun?

A.—The Browning type is the very newest type of machine gun. Early in 1918 it was announced that its manufacture was being pushed forcefully, and that General Pershing had asked for this type in preference to others. It is to be a wholly automatic gun—that is, its operator need merely pull the trigger and hold it so. So long as the trigger is held in that firing position, the gun will shoot as fast as the cartridges can pour into it. After the first shot, the recoil does it all—ejects the fired cartridge, throws a new one into the firing chamber, and discharges it, repeating the process so long as the cartridge supply holds out.

Q.—Do the guns not get hot from such tremendous firing?

A.—They get almost red-hot. For this reason they all have water-cooling de-

vices, which generally consist of an outer case around the barrel filled with water. One objection to the guns has been that the steam thus generated often betrays the gun-position. The Browning machine rifle has a device to counteract this, and is so constructed that 350 shots can be fired before the gun needs cooling off. The Browning machine gun (a heavier type than the rifle) has a water-jacket like other machine guns.

Q.—Can the Browning machine gun be used like a rifle?

A.—Yes. One pattern, known as the Browning machine rifle, can be fired from the shoulder or the hip. It weighs only 15 pounds. This new American machine rifle takes 20 cartridges for one load. All that the soldier needs to do is to cock the hammer and pull the trigger. After that he needs merely keep his finger pressing the trigger and the gun will shoot until its ammunition is gone. That is not a long time, however—for the Browning machine rifle will shoot its 20 shots in from 2½ to 3 seconds.

Q.—How is the Browning machine gun fired?

A.—It is on a tripod and the gunner kneels or sits behind it. An endless cotton belt feeds the cartridges into the gun. The belt holds 250 cartridges, and the gun fires them as fast as they can be thrown in by the automatic feed. A Browning machine gun, in an endurance test, fired 20,000 shots in 2,896 seconds, or almost 10 shots a second.

Q.—Have the Germans many machine guns?

A.—It is now known that the Germans had about 50,000 of these guns in the beginning, and, despite losses due to wearing out, scrapping, or capture, it is said that the enemy has now no less than 75,000. The Germans appear to supply one machine gun to twenty men on the front line.

Q.—What is the difference between a rapid-fire gun and a machine gun?

A.—The machine gun is of small caliber and fires cartridges of the caliber of army rifle cartridges, which are fed into it automatically as quickly as the weapon can shoot.

Rapid-fire or quick-fire guns are actual cannon of calibers up to 6 inches, loaded by hand at the breech with large, fixed ammunition; that is, ammunition which is like a cartridge, containing both the propulsive powder and the projectile in one. These guns can be fired as fast as the gunners can snap open the breech, eject a fired shell-casing, and ram in another one. Rigid practice and team-work make possible an astounding number of discharges in a minute.

Q.—What is the difference between these quick-firing guns and the larger guns?

A.—The difference between these quick-fire cannon and the still larger sizes is that the larger ones are loaded with a projectile first, then with powder. This separate loading (due to the impracticability of making the big projectiles in cartridge form) naturally makes their fire slower. Remarkable speed, however, is attained by good gun crews even with the biggest calibers. Naval gun crews can fire a number of shots a minute with the huge twelve- and fourteen-inch turret guns, though each discharge entails the handling of several tons of powder and steel.

Q.—Has American shell-making capacity increased?

A.—The shell-making capacity for 75-millimeter (2.955-inch) and 3-inch shells was reported officially in January, 1918, as increased 50 per cent, and the increase for sizes above that was 25 per cent. At that time the Ordnance Department stated that it had under order 59,803,910 shells to be delivered in 1918.

Q.—What was our status of cannon production after we declared war?

A.—In his speech before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs, January 28, 1918, the Secretary of War said that Lewis machine guns for aerial use were then being manufactured "in large numbers"; that the distribution of machine guns to national draft camps was 30 Colt, 45 Chauchat, 65 Lewis; National Army cantonments, 50 Colt, 45 Chauchat, 65 Lewis. He said that during January 620 75-millimeter field-pieces (2.955-inch) had to be supplied by France, while American works could turn out only 84, but that by April the ratio would be: French, 73; American, 231; and by December, 1918, the American output would be 433 a month. Against one 155-millimeter (6.10-inch) howitzer in January, 1918.

American output would be 300 a month by the end of the year.

Q.—Has Germany everything needed for explosives?

A.—She does not produce all the raw materials, but her chemists have been able to get what is needed from other substances. Sulphur, for instance, is hardly found in Germany, but in the Hartz and Silesia there are deposits of ores containing sulphur, such as galena (sulphide of lead), blende (sulphide of zinc), and some others. She has no nitre (saltpetre), which comes from India, Peru and Chili. When distilled with sulphuric acid, it yields nitric acid, which is used in "nitrating" glycerine, cotton, phenol and toluene. For fifteen years, however, nitric acid has been won by obtaining the nitrogen from the air, in Sweden, and it is known that the Germans have extensive plants for the same purpose. Glycerine is a product of the soap works. There is, of course, plenty of coal tar, from which phenol and toluene are won. Not only have the Germans their own coal mines, they have the Belgian and French ones also. The one important thing they appear to lack is cotton.

Q.—Can the copper in fired cartridges be used again?

A.—Of course it can. The belligerents are all saving the shells of the cartridges used when at all possible. In trench warfare probably none are lost, either from machine guns or rifles. This fact is usually overlooked by those who make careful calculations as to the amount of copper Germany must import, or mine to keep her armies supplied. They gathered all used material on the battlefields from the very beginning.

Q.—Has Germany enough iron?

A.—Plenty. In 1911 the United States mined 443,000,000 tons. The United Kingdom, 271,900,000; Germany, 158,000,000; and France, 38,000,000 (the latter from mines now almost all in German possession). In the same year the United States produced 41,000,000 tons of iron ore, Germany 29,500,000, and the United Kingdom 15,500,000. Germany has made great strides in the manufacture of steel and iron. She produced 14,800,000 tons of steel to England's 6,500,000 tons in 1911, and 15,300,000 tons of pig iron to England's 9,720,000 tons. The United States easily leads the world, producing nearly 24,000,000 of steel and almost the same quantity of pig iron. Since the war the production of iron and steel has, no doubt, immensely increased in Germany; for she is momentarily in possession of all the coal and iron in Belgium and some two-thirds of the total production of France.

Q.—What is supposed to be the life of a rifle?

A.—It is calculated that a rifle will last about a month in active hard service. This means that 80,000 men would get through 1,000,000 rifles in a year. But please note that this is in "active hard service." That is a theoretical condition for which the army command must be prepared, because it may become a fact at any moment. But in actuality it will happen very rarely that any one body of troops actually will fight hard and continually for a whole month.

Q.—What size shell does an eighteen-pounder gun fire?

A.—It fires a shell 3.3 inches in diameter, and sends it 3⅜ miles. The thirteen-pounder used by British horse artillery fires a 3-inch shell. Its range is a little greater than that of the eighteen-pounder. The famous French 75-mm. gun fires a shell just a shade less in diameter (2.955 inches).

Q.—What does enfilade mean?

A.—Enfilading fire is the military term for a raking fire. A gun enfilades a trench when it is placed in such a position that it can fire straight along it, and enfilades troops when its fire takes them on the flank.

Q.—When did the Germans first use poisonous gas?

A.—In May, 1915, at Hill 60 on the Ypres line, against the British. It was the kind that became known as chlorine gas, because that chemical was its chief constituent and gave it its chief deadliness. It was produced by volatilizing liquid sulphurous acid and liquefied chlorine, a process that liberates enormous bulks of vapor. Its principal action was on the bronchial tubes and the lungs, which it injured seriously, leaving pitiable after-effects. It caused intense suffering, and the men caught in the first gas-attack were, of course, quite helpless, being unprovided with any defense. As one soldier said: "The ghastliest wounds were sweet compared to it."

Q.—Was this gas sent from guns?

A.—No. It was liberated from cylinders and it could be used only when the wind blew toward the opposing lines. Even then there always remained the chance that a shift of wind might blow it back. Therefore, terrible as the new weapon was, gas-warfare did not assume dominant importance until, realizing its possibilities, the armies began to project it inside of explosive shells. By the middle of 1918 it had become "the deadliest instrument of the war."

Q.—Did chlorine gas remain the worst?

A.—No. Gas inventions accumulated with gruesome rapidity. Gases appeared that strangled, suffocated, blinded and paralyzed. Some of the gases were comparatively harmless, causing only temporary disability or simply forcing abandonment of gased areas. Others were frightful.

Q.—How can gas overcome men in the open air?

A.—The gases used are heavier than the air. The gas, therefore, flows into trenches and underground shelters like water, and thus strangles men who happen to be anywhere where air-currents may drive the poisonous fumes. The latest gases make even open areas uninhabitable.

Q.—Can men tell in time when gas is coming?

A.—Most gas shells explode with much less noise than is made by any other explosive shell. The odor also warns of the arrival of most gases. There is a regular signal now to warn of gas. A rocket is sent up or automobile horns and other signals are sounded, and every man knows that he must put on his gas mask at once.

Q.—What is phosgene gas?

A.—It is a perfectly odorless gas. If the soldiers are not warned by identifying the peculiar exploding sound which the phosgene shell makes, there is no other way to discover it. It cannot be detected, indeed, until the heart stops beating and the victim falls dead.

For defense against this, men were specially trained to distinguish the slight difference in tone between the detonation of a gas shell and other shells, and it became their business to watch for the deadly arrivals.

Then the Germans met this with another move which for a time seemed to baffle all efforts to counteract it. They mixed gas and explosives in the same shell. This is the form of attack they tried on the Americans in February and March, 1918.

As an emergency measure the Allies then ordered gas masks to be worn continuously, but the Germans invented sneeze bombs and tear bombs to force the men to take their masks off.

Q.—Is there a defense against gas?

A.—Yes—one, and one only. It is the gas mask. The United States is spending millions now on gas masks, and they are as indispensable a part of a soldier's outfit as cartridges. It is estimated that 20 per cent, at least, of the shells that are fired are gas shells. So vast a part of war has gas become that the United States has a Gas Defense Service in its Medical Department.

Q.—Were gas masks invented in this war?

A.—Soon after the first German gas attack English and French women sent to the front hundreds of thousands of home-made gas masks. For the most part, they were merely bandages impregnated with chemicals to wrap around the mouth and nose.

The next thing in gas masks was a cloth helmet or hood dipped in neutralizing solution, the bottom of which was tucked in the collar. This hood had two eye goggles. Air was breathed in through the cloth. The chemicals in the cloth filtered the incoming air, but there was no provision for exhalation, and within a short time the man was unable to get a proper amount of good air.

The next improvement was to put in an exhaust or outlet for the exhaled air. This type of mask has been used extensively. Its disadvantages are that a man cannot hear well, the chemicals in the cloth cause him trouble, and the mask cannot long remain impermeable to gases.

Q.—What is the most terrible gas?

A.—Mustard gas—so-called because it causes burns in addition to its other terrible effects. The name is a misnomer, however, for there is no mustard in it and when it is loaded into the shells it

is not a gas, but an amber fluid which emits gas after it is discharged from the exploding shell. Both the liquid and its gas are deadly. The gas kills by inhalation and the liquid burns the skin savagely and destroys eyesight. It does not evaporate after a few hours like other gases; the gas stays in a drenched area 2 to 4 days according to conditions, and all objects, even the soil drenched by the liquid remain dangerous to the touch for days.

Q.—How is it used?

A.—It is projected from regular artillery in shells that have thinner casing than the common explosive shell. The effective principle in its use is to send enormous quantities of shells into a given area to deluge it with the liquid, which is sent far and wide in a fine mist. In one attack in early 1918 the Germans sent 7,000 tons over. In April, 1918, they so drenched Armentieres that neither side could dare enter it. The streets and gutters ran with the reddish-brown liquid.

Q.—Is there any warning against it?

A.—Practically none, except the sound of the bursting shell. It has only a faint, sweetish, not disagreeable odor and the vapor can be inhaled without immediate discomfort. The liquid looks harmless, and a drop on a soldier's coat looks only like a drop of oil and does not hurt the cloth.

Q.—What does mustard gas do?

A.—Inhalation of the vapor causes "chemical pneumonia"—high fever, agonized breathing and sometimes stupor. Autopsies have disclosed that it breaks the lung tissues down "like wet paper," according to Dr. Benjamin T. Brooks, one of the American experts who is aiding our gas-mask service. The oil itself penetrates through cloth. At first it causes only a slight smarting, but some hours later the flesh puffs and reddens, the tissues swell enormously, and a deep burn appears and widens over the area. It blinds not only by immediate contact but by communication through bodily tissues.

Q.—Have the American troops a defense against mustard gas?

A.—The government has announced that the Chemical Warfare Service of the U. S. Army has met all the conditions caused by mustard gas. The American mask is full protection against inhalation, and an ointment has been developed as protection for the skin. The first month's shipment to France was 800,000 tubes of this new defense-material. Men who are sent into trenches to clear them of gas are dressed in special underwear chemically treated.

Q.—Have we found out how to make mustard gas?

A.—Our chemists succeeded some time ago. Mustard gas first appeared late in 1917 and was not used formidably till March, 1918. However, in January, 1918, chemists reported to the War Department that 75 tons a day should be produced and before August quantity production was undertaken.

Q.—What gas mask are the Americans using?

A.—A very scientific respirator mask with a face piece of absolutely impervious material, with glass or celluloid eye pieces, held in place by rubber bands around the head. A canister is carried in a small knapsack and a flexible tube connects with the face piece.

Inside the face piece is a small wire clamp with rubber pads, which fits on the nose and forces the wearer to breathe through his mouth. The end of a flexible tube has a rubber mouthpiece, through which the man breathes. The incoming breath comes through the canister, which is filled with several layers of special chemicals of an absorbent nature, that neutralize or render harmless the gas-laden air. The outgoing breath passes outside the face piece through a small rubber valve.

Q.—Is the American gas mask like the German?

A.—No. In the German mask the container for the neutralizing chemicals was screwed into a ring in the bottom of the mask. There was no outlet valve for the exhaled air, both incoming and outgoing air passing through the container.

Q.—How are the gas masks used?

A.—The mask is carried in a knapsack at the left hip, supported by a shoulder band. When troops approach a danger zone, the straps are shortened and the knapsack is shifted to rest high on the chest, ready for instant use. This is known as the "alert position." The soldier has merely to open the knapsack, pull out the flexible hose with the face piece attached, put the rubber mouthpiece in his mouth and adjust the bands

over his head. The nose clip can easily be adjusted from the outside after the face piece is on. This nose clip insures that even if the fabric of the face piece should be pierced, the soldier would still be breathing entirely through his mouth.

Q.—Do the American gas masks furnish absolute protection?

A.—The present American mask affords more protection than any other device in existence. The chemicals in the canister will neutralize the heaviest concentrations of gases for a period at least ten times longer than the possible duration of any gas attack.

For every mask there is at least one extra canister. These canisters are detachable from the tube. When a canister has lost its efficiency, it can be detached, and a new canister put on.

A Gas Defense School has been established in each cantonment, and a gas mask factory, with 4,000 workers, was organized early in the war.

Q.—What is liquid fire?

A.—The basis of modern liquid fire as used in this war is petroleum, serving both to make the flaming stream and to project it. It is a successor to the famous "Greek fire" of ancient time, which was invented by Callinicus, an architect. This was made, it is thought, of sulphur and naphtha, with quicklime to start the ignition when wetted. It was especially efficacious against ships.

Q.—How is liquid fire used?

A.—It is sprayed from portable containers, known as projectors. The projectors are brought as close as possible, under concealment, to the point of attack, arranged in groups of from 50 to 200 and more, and discharged at the desired moment. They squirt the blazing material into the enemy lines, as a fire-engine would squirt water.

Q.—What is a lachrymal shell?

A.—A shell filled with a gas that causes violent flow of tears with sharp eye-irritation. Many such tear-irritants are familiar to chemists. One is acrolein, obtained by burning fats of glycerine, but the Germans lack such fats. Another source is formaldehyde. A tear-excitant can be extracted by applying heat to common pepper, and red pepper (paprika) is one of the big Hungarian products. Protective measures are comparatively simple.

Q.—Was gas ever used before?

A.—The Chinese used the famous "stink-pot" ages ago. Devices that made strangling smoke were used extensively in the sieges of Troy and Carthage, and remained a fairly formidable war-weapon through the Middle Ages. In modern times such instruments had been considered as prohibited to civilized nations under Article XXIII of the Hague Regulations: "It is forbidden . . . to employ arms, projectiles or material calculated to cause unnecessary suffering."

Q.—What is a glacis?

A.—The name given to the ground in front of a fortification. It is sloped so that it can be covered thoroughly by the fire from the guns of the fort.

Q.—Are the tanks merely armored cars?

A.—They are much more. Armored cars were well understood when the great war began, though they were, of course, not nearly so highly developed as they became by 1918. They are, however, in principle merely automobile gun carriages, armored to protect gun crews and guns. The tank, to the contrary, is a genuine moving fortification. Its crew is concealed entirely within it, and its power is so vast that the enormous bulk and weight moves irresistibly forward. Wonderfully devised traction, based on the caterpillar principle devised by American makers of agricultural tractors, impels it. This traction is a pair of huge, endless steel chain-belts, and the tank truly crawls forward instead of depending on wheels. The strength of the apparatus is so great that tanks can actually crawl into and out of trenches, shell-holes and other places that would defy wheeled vehicles.

Q.—How are the British tanks armed?

A.—There are two types of British tanks. One carries two six-pounder, rapid-fire Hotchkiss guns and four Lewis machine guns. The other is armed with six Lewis guns. Each type weighs about thirty tons, and is manned by an officer and seven men. The armor plate is of ¼-inch steel of a special composition, and has great powers of resistance against rifle, machine gun and shrapnel fire.

Q.—What is the best weapon used against the tanks?

A.—The most efficacious weapon against the tanks is the armor-piercing bullet. It is feared by the crews of the tanks, because it pierces the armor and frequently sets fire to the fuel reservoir.

Hand grenades, employed one at a time, are useless. It is necessary to employ a

concentrated charge (several cylinders grouped around a central grenade), and throw it under the tank; but this is a difficult task.

Machine guns are useless against them. But the tanks, in turn, are vulnerable to heavy steel shells from any of the field artillery guns used today.

Q.—Have tanks become very formidable weapons?

A.—In August and September, 1918, when the British, French and American armies began their enormous advance, the tanks played a very important part indeed. The Germans ascribed at least some of their disaster to huge "fleets" of tanks.

Q.—Is the tank not a brand new war invention?

A.—They were used exactly 2,157 years before they made their appearance on the British-German lines. In the tremendous siege of the "Queen of Africa" Cartnage, the Romans attacked the walls with "tortoises"—immense tortoise-shaped tanks on wheels, whose backs, covered with timber, iron scales, hides and straw padding protected the soldiers underneath against the liquid fire, projectiles and boiling water that rained down on them from above. They also attacked with a huge armored tower on wheels, the famous "Hellepolis." The attacks failed. The Carthaginians devised a defense against each new apparatus in turn.

Q.—What does the word "abatis" mean?

A.—It is a military term to describe one of the obstacles which, when the war began, were used in defense of field works. Such defense is probably obsolete now. It was formed of the limbs of trees, twelve or fifteen feet long, laid close together, the larger branches pointed towards the enemy and the stems secured to the ground. The object of an abatis is, of course, to break up the enemy's advance. Nowadays heavy explosive shells sweep such obstacles out of the way with ease. Barbed wire takes its place now.

Q.—Who used barbed wire first in modern warfare?

A.—The Boers in South Africa, and then the Russians and Japanese in Manchuria. It is now one of the most important of defensive appliances.

Q.—How is barbed wire cut by the soldiers?

A.—Hand wire-cutters are used at times, but the main dependence is on special shells. These are not made with thick walls, as it is not the flying fragments which do the damage when the shell explodes, but actually the wind of the explosion. A Dumezil shell will clean up a network of wire over an area of about 100 square feet. These special shells are thrown a distance of about 1,200 feet by small trench howitzers.

Q.—Can the most complicated wire entanglements be swept aside in this way?

A.—The ordinary entanglements cannot stand against these shells, but there are methods of arranging the wire in spirals, which effectively defy the shells. In fact, the more the spirals are bombarded the more the different coils become entangled, forming an inextricable jungle, on which hostile attacks are vain. The French have greatly developed this method of wiring, which they call *Brun* networks.

Q.—Who invented barbed wire?

A.—An American, Colonel Elbridge who, it is said, used his wife's hairpins for barbs in his early experimental work.

Q.—Is gasolene vital to modern war?

A.—It has made a probably vital difference. Owing to its use transport has been greatly accelerated, and guns especially have been moved with wonderful speed. Besides the tanks, there are steel-clad motor-cars with turrets, from which heavy, rapid-fire guns pour streams of lead. Anti-aircraft guns are moved on gasolene carriages to points where they are needed. Even the mighty howitzers and siege guns are dragged by gasolene or oil-driven engines, and it is used for the ambulance cars, and all manner of transport.

Q.—Does anybody know the amount of British orders for munitions placed here?

A.—From August, 1914, to the middle of July, 1917 (about 3 years), the British Government placed orders for ordnance of all kinds and all kinds of ammunition, totaling $1,308,000,000. An illustration

of the scale of American preparation is the fact that in the seven months following the entrance of the United States into the war (from the middle of May to the middle of December, 1917), the Ordnance Department of the United States Army placed orders for $1,500,000,000.

Q.—What is a duck walk?

A.—A term first applied in humor and since then in regular military use, for the slatted wooden walks that are laid in the muddy trenches.

Q.—What is a Firing Step?

A.—It is a narrow ledge running along a parapet. The soldiers stand on it if they want to look over the top or fire.

Q.—How are star-lights fired?

A.—They are fired from a specially made pistol and they are used to illuminate the surroundings.

Q.—Why are some shells called Whiz-bangs?

A.—There is one kind of German shell which makes that kind of a noise on arrival and on explosion. The soldiers invented the name for it early in the war.

Q.—Where does the word "Blighty" come from?

A.—It was slang used to denote "home" by the British troops that had seen Indian service, and was simply the East Indian word for it. The soldiers from England promptly applied it to their home across the Channel, and thus "Old Blighty" came practically to mean England.

Q.—Was Germany short of shells after the battle of the Marne?

A.—It was said that she was, although in those early stages of the war, before the trench dead-lock was established, nothing like the number of shells and guns was needed as is required today.

Q.—What is meant by bridgehead?

A.—A bridgehead is a position which commands the crossing of a river. It is not necessarily at an actual bridge to span the stream. Owing to the long range of modern guns a bridgehead may actually have to be a long way away from the river itself, as its function is to prevent the enemy artillery from interfering with the crossing army, and to hold a position that shall enable the big body of the army behind to form in security.

Q.—Is the French 75 the greatest artillery weapon?

A.—Among quick-firing guns it still was said in late 1918 to be pre-eminent. It had this immense advantage that it did not require to be re-aimed after each discharge. The recoil is entirely taken up by the shock-absorbers and the gun points at exactly the same mark all the time. The following comparison between the 75 and its German rival is interesting:

	French 75.	German 77.
Length	8 feet	7¾ feet
Maximum range	3¾ miles	3 miles
Shots per minute	25	9
Weight of shrapnel	15 lbs.	14 lbs.
W'ght explosive shell	11 lbs.	11 lbs.
Initial velocity sec.	1720 feet	1510 feet
Bullets in shrapnel	300	300
Weight of cannon	2250 lbs.	1950 lbs.
Gunners with each piece	7	8
Guns in battery	4	6
Batteries per army corps	30	24
Total number of cannon (1914)	2520	3600

Q.—Has the shell of the French 75 been altered since the war?

A.—The main alteration has been the increased number of fragments into which the projectile breaks. One of these shells now bursts into more than 2,000 pieces, some of them so small as to wound fatally without making a conspicuous abrasion on the skin. The tiniest of particles possesses so great a velocity as to inflict grave injuries at 30 or 40 yards from the spot where the shell bursts.

Q.—Why have the Germans not mastered the secret of the French 75's?

A.—It seems as if they must have learned the secret, but the replacement of artillery types during war presents immense industrial manufacturing problems.

Q.—How fast can the 75 fire?

A.—The famous 75 will shoot as many as 16 shells a minute, and many of them have fired 2,000 shells in a single day, although they are seldom called upon for such an achievement. It keeps 500 workmen constantly busy to supply one

of the 75's with shells once it gets into action.

Q.—Is the Ross rifle still used by the Canadian troops in France?

A.—No. Although this rifle had stood pre-war tests exceedingly well, Lord French in 1915 urged its entire withdrawal. It appears, however, to have been used till August, 1916, when the equipment of Canadian troops with the regulation British arm, the Lee-Enfield, was begun.

Q.—Can shell-torn battlefields be cultivated?

A.—There has been a general belief that agricultural lands devastated by shell fire will require a decade of cultivation to bring them to their former fruitfulness. An American farming expert, however, who has given the subject much study, and who has personally visited the battlefields, says that not only can the lands be recovered, but that they can be made just as fruitful as ever.

Q.—What is a communication trench?

A.—This trench, known by the soldiers as "C. T.," is a trench leading back from the front or firing line to the rear, as protection to those bringing up supplies, etc.

Q.—What are dug-outs?

A.—They are the underground shelters or caves in the trenches in which soldiers on duty may rest, relatively safe from the danger of exploding shells or bullets. They constitute also a definite part of the front-line fortifications, as soldiers can be dislodged from such cave-like strongholds only by throwing bombs into them or employing suffocating gas.

Q.—Is direct injury achieved by artillery fire against enemy batteries?

A.—It has been thought by some that the only thing that counts is bombardment of the infantry. General Ludendorff, Chief of the German General Staff, in a report dated October 4, 1917, shows, however, that artillery fire against artillery positions is a very serious matter. The average number of guns lost by a single German Army in a single month were stated to amount to 1,455, of which 870 were field guns and 585 heavy pieces. Of the total of 1,455 about 655 were lost through wear, and 800 through Allied bombardments.

Q.—What is meant by a "Silent Susie"?

A.—A German high explosive shell not heard until it bursts. As most of the large shells can be both seen and heard, because their swift flight makes a loud screaming or whistling sound, the "Silent Susie" is more to be feared than some of the others.

Q.—What is a primer?

A.—The percussion cap set in the head of a cartridge or shell to explode the propulsive powder.

Q.—What is shrapnel?

A.—Shrapnel is an explosive shell, fired like other explosive shells from a rifled cannon. But, unlike all other explosive shells, which have thick steel walls to make their bursting power effective, the shrapnel shell is only a thin steel casing —a "can," so to speak. The old term "cannister" is based on this very fact.

The shrapnel shell is filled with explosive like other shells, but, in addition, is packed with bullets by the hundreds. A time fuse is so adjusted that the shell shall explode when it is over a position occupied by troops. The bursting of the shells drives the bullets in a spreading rain of metal with deadly force.

It is the most savage form of artillery attack known against troops that are at all in the open. To be truly effective, however, it requires extreme accuracy.

Q.—Why is it called shrapnel?

A.—It is named for its inventor, a British General named Shrapnel, who served in the early part of the nineteenth century, dying in 1842.

Q.—Are trench periscopes like submarine periscopes?

A.—Very much so, both in principle and construction, being a tube, more or less long, with prisms and mirrors in it which reflect to the observer below the image seen by the great glass "eye" at the top. The trench periscope, however, is easier to hide from the enemy than the submarine periscope. It can be erected among tree branches, or in similar "camouflage" so that no hostile watcher is very likely to sight it. Some of the periscopes are small, but others are giants that are moved from place to place on little carts. These monsters have telescopic tubes, which can be raised so high that the observer can look over all sorts of obstacles into enemy positions.

OUR ARMY

Q.—What officer commands all the American war forces?

A.—No officer can ever have their command, because the Constitution of the United States makes the President Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy. His powers as such are those of military command and include, of course, the right to dispose the national forces where they can be used to best advantage. In the War of 1812, in the Mexican War, in the Spanish War, in the Boxer rebellion, and, recently, in Mexico, American troops were thus sent to fight on foreign soil. These, however, were all either volunteers or regulars.

Q.—Who is the Chief of Staff of the U. S. Army?

A.—Major-General Peyton C. March assumed these duties in March, 1918, after Major-General Tasker H. Bliss (who had succeeded Major-General Scott in September, 1917) had gone to Europe to represent the United States in the Supreme War Council.

Q.—What was the peace strength of the regular army?

A.—It consisted of 5,014 commissioned officers and 92,973 enlisted men, which included about 6,000 so-called Philippine Scouts.

Q.—What was the strength of America's army in 1918?

A.—At the beginning of 1918 the regular army consisted of 10,250 officers and 475,000 enlisted men, the National Guard of 10,031 officers and 400,900 enlisted men, the National Army of 480,000 men, and the reserve of 84,575 officers and 72,750 enlisted men, a total of 1,539,485 officers and men. On June 28, 1918, our total army had grown to 2,010,000 enlisted men and 160,400 officers.

Q.—Is there a National Guard organization in the U. S. army?

A.—The National Guard service, approximating 300,000 men, was incorporated into Federal service August 5, 1917.

Q.—What is the smallest army organization?

A.—The smallest unit or "team" in the Army is the squad. A squad usually consists of eight men, one of whom is the leader; he is called the "corporal." The object of the company commander is to make this a permanent unit by putting men together who will work well in unison.

Two, three, or four squads (usually three) may be joined in the next higher unit, which is called a "platoon." The platoon is not so permanent as a squad, but is formed whenever there is need for it.

Q.—How is a company made up?

A.—The company is made up at full strength of 150 men; this is about 18 squads or 6 platoons. This number is "war strength" in our old tables of organization; the first division now in France has 200 men per company. It is probable the strength may become 250 per infantry company. Figures for the number of squads and of platoons are never definitely fixed. A company in the field is seldom at full strength, and it may be convenient at any time to change the numbers of squads and platoons.

Q.—What is an army division?

A.—A division is a group of various branches of the Army, making the whole body complete in itself—that is, able to fight by itself, feed itself, transport its supplies, etc. Thus, the American Infantry Division, as organized for modern war, has not only infantry, but cavalry, artillery, engineers, signal and quartermaster corps, medical and sanitary troops and supplies, etc.

It should be noted that in newspaper articles the reference to a "division" frequently means a mere body of men detached on some special expedition. This is not an Army division. It is an expeditionary force only. But such an expeditionary force, if operating far away, may have all the organization of a division on a miniature scale.

Q.—How big is an army division?

A.—A United States Army Infantry Division has two infantry brigades (four regiments), two machine-gun battalions,

two regiments of light artillery, one regiment of heavy artillery, one trench-mortar battery, one extra (divisional) machine-gun battalion, one regiment of engineers, one field signal battalion with all the necessary "trains" for transport. The total strength is 887 officers and 26,265 enlisted men.

This is much larger than "divisions" used to be. The size of divisions in most armies used to be about 19,000 men.

Q.—How many men are in a British division?

A.—In pre-war days such a division would have been composed of twelve infantry regiments, nine batteries of 18-pounders, two batteries of 5-inch howitzers, three batteries of 4.5-inch heavy battery siege guns, ammunition column, two field companies and engineers, signal company, two mounted infantry companies, three field ambulances of sixteen wagons each, and a baggage train. In all it would consist of 19,111 officers and men, 6,773 horses, 24 machine guns, 54 field 18-pounder guns, 12 howitzers, 4 "long Toms," 198 ammunition wagons, 8 motor cars, 274 two-horse wagons, 232 four-horse wagons, 241 six-horse wagons, 135 bicycles. In a division in the field to-day there would certainly be much more artillery, far greater numbers of machine guns, and practically all the horse equipage will have been replaced by motors.

Q.—What is the reason for dividing an army up into squads, regiments, etc.?

A.—Fundamentally, the same reason that leads business men to divide their business organizations into various departments. If an army were in one body, it would not only be absolutely unwieldy, but the commanding general and his staff could not possibly issue orders to it.

Under the system of dividing it, the commander-in-chief is able to issue his order to the entire army under him with the utmost ease and quickness by simply sending the orders to the division commanders. These, in turn, do not need to try to reach their entire divisions, which, it must be remembered, may be scattered over many, miles of country. They simply give the orders to their brigade commanders, and these transmit the command to the regimental headquarters. Thus, an army order, instead of needing to be passed to thousands of officers, needs to be sent to only a very few headquarters, and the commanding general always knows where these are at a given moment.

Q.—What is a battalion?

A.—In the American Army it is an organized force of about 1,000 men (if composed of infantry)—that is, it is not a full regiment, but it is a body of men formidable in number and yet sufficiently compact to be easily handled.

In former times a battalion was of interest to army men chiefly as being a convenient and useful administrative unit of the army organization; but in the great war it has become one of the very important sub-divisions of armies for direct fighting.

The strength of a battalion varies in the various armies. Some have expanded it so that it is almost as big as a regiment; but the best practice appears to be the one that has been adopted for the fighting organization of the United States.

Under this system, a battalion of infantry has 1,000 men under 26 officers, the commanding officer being a major.

The other branches of the service have less men in a battalion.

There are two forms of American machine-gun battalions. One has 550 men under 20 officers, and it has 36 heavy machine guns and 12 spare guns. The other form of battalion has 728 men under 26 officers, and it has 48 heavy machine guns and 16 spare guns.

A brand new type of American battalion is the trench-mortar battalion, which has 757 men under 17 officers.

Other American battalion strengths are: light artillery, 579 men under 17 officers; heavy field artillery, 476 men under 12 officers; engineer battalion, 753 men under 20 officers.

Q.—What is an adjutant-general?

A.—An officer who keeps the records, orders, and correspondence of the Army. He serves under the direction of the Secretary of War and of the Chief of Staff. Through him and over his name instructions and regulations of the War Department are sent forward to military officers and troops. He is at once a secretary and archivist to the Secretary of War, and, to a large extent, rules the legal questions of an army.

Q.—What offenses in the American army incur death penalty?

A.—Eleven offenses are named in the regulations. Of these, spying, murder, and rape, and sometimes desertion in the face of the enemy are punishable by hanging. The others are punishable by shooting, but the method is left to the commanding officers. The lesser offenses

so punishable are cowardice, in any one of a variety of ways; sleep or drunkenness on sentry post; desertion or the incitement to or assistance in desertion; attack upon a superior officer or insubordination; mutiny or sedition; making known the countersign; aiding the enemy with ammunition "or any other thing," or harboring or giving intelligence to the enemy.

In the offense of "neglect of sentry duty," which is a betrayal of responsibility whose seriousness has made it an almost unforgivable crime against military law, the letter of the regulation recognizes no difference between being asleep and being intoxicated.

Q.—Is it any excuse for a sleeping sentry to plead that he was worn out?

A.—The regulations say distinctly that "the fact that the accused had been previously overtaxed by excessive guard duty is not a defense, although evidence to that effect may be received in extenuation of the offense." The reason for this severity is that the sentry who neglects his duty may have jeopardized all his comrades and perhaps the fate of a battle or even a campaign.

Q.—What is done to a private who punches an officer?

A.—He may be punished by death. He certainly will be punished with great severity. The American Army regulation is:

"Any person subject to military law, who, on any pretense whatever, strikes his superior officer or draws or lifts up any weapon against him, being in the execution of his office, or willfully disobeys any lawful command of his superior officers, shall suffer death or such other punishment as a court-martial may direct."

Q.—What is the difference between a brigade and a regiment?

A.—A brigade is a force made up of a number of regiments. An American infantry brigade, under present conditions, contains two infantry regiments and has, in addition, a machine-gun battalion. Each regiment is commanded by its own officers, the commanding officer of each being a colonel. The whole is commanded by a general of brigade, better known as brigadier-general.

Brigades in old days often were as small as 3,000 men, but with the modern increase of regimental strength, an American infantry brigade, at full war strength, has 8,000 men with 232 commissioned officers.

There are, also, brigades of field artillery and of cavalry. A field artillery brigade has two regiments of light artillery, one regiment of heavy artillery, and a trench-mortar battery. A cavalry brigade consists of three regiments of cavalry. Artillery and cavalry brigades have about 5,000 men each, counting officers.

Q.—What is meant by a battery? Does it mean any number of cannon or only a few?

A.—"Battery" means to the artillery what "company" means to the infantry regiment—that is, it is the smallest unit of the organization, which is commanded directly by commissioned officers.

An American battery of light artillery has four 3-inch guns and 193 men under 5 officers.

The American battery of heavy field artillery has four 6-inch guns, 228 men, and five officers. (Of course, there is the full proportionate number of non-commissioned officers, such as sergeants, corporals, etc.)

When two batteries of heavy, or three batteries of light, field artillery are combined, the organization is a battalion, and a major commands it.

Q.—What is the difference between commissioned officers and non-commissioned ones?

A.—Commissioned officers hold their position only by virtue of a commission issued to them under authority of the President as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy. In the old establishment of the Army, the regular Army officers were mostly from West Point, with comparatively few officers promoted from the ranks or appointed from civilian life.

Non-commissioned officers are always men selected from the privates, and, despite their titles (corporal and sergeant), they remain distinctly of the status of privates, in so far as their rank compares with that of even the lowest commissioned officer.

They are appointed by the commanding officer of the regiment, usually on recommendation of the company commander. They may be degraded to the ranks again, for cause.

Q.—Do commissioned officers in the army not get certain extras beside their pay?

A.—They do. There are standard extra allowances for such things as "quarters" (meaning rental for living quarters), "light" (meaning a stated allowance per month for whatever light they need at night), "forage" (feed for cavalry horses), etc. The schedule of these extra allowances is fearfully and wonderfully intricate. It has been the subject of innumerable Congress laws and war-department regulations, and old army officers, despite all their experience, find it a decidedly difficult task to figure out just how the allowances obtain in given cases.

Roughly speaking, these extras increase the pay of American Army officers by about $30 monthly in the case of second lieutenants; $46 for first lieutenants; $59 for captains; $73 for majors; $87 for lieutenant-colonels; $110 for colonels; $114 for brigadier-generals; $127 for major-generals. It must be remembered that the theory is that these allowances are not added pay, but merely allowances to meet actual expenses.

Q.—Is an officer on inactive duty entitled to wear his uniform?

A.—He may if he desires. He must when on active duty. In the days of peace, a West Point man considered it very much against etiquette to wear his uniform at any time except when he was on actual duty within army limits. So far was this observance carried that officers assigned to duties where uniforms were obligatory, often carried them in suitcases and donned them only on the spot where they had to wear them. It was a very rare thing, indeed, to see an American officer on the streets in uniform.

Q.—What is a private's first promotion?

A.—Promotion to corporal. These are usually chosen from the first-class privates. Corporals are the squad leaders. They are appointed by the commanding officer of the regiment on the recommendation of the commanding officer of the company. In addition, each company may have one lance corporal, a temporary appointment made by the company commander for the purpose of testing the ability of some private for permanent appointment. If the lance corporal does not make a good showing, he is returned to the ranks when the commander sees fit.

Q.—Is a sergeant the highest non-commissioned officer?

A.—Yes. He is next above the corporal in rank. There are usually 9 to 11 sergeants in a company. Unless a sergeant has some other duty assigned to him, he is normally the leader of a platoon. There are, however, many special duties assigned to sergeants. The first sergeant (in Army slang, the "top sergeant") keeps certain company records, forms the company in ranks, transmits orders from the company commander, and performs other important tasks. The supply sergeant sees to bringing up supplies of all kinds to the company. The mess sergeant looks after food. The stable sergeant is responsible for the care of horses and mules. The color sergeant carries the colors. There are many other grades within the rank of sergeant.

Q.—What is the pay of American privates?

Rank.	Monthly pay. Serving in U. S.	Serving Abroad.
Private	$30.00	$33.00
First-class private	33.00	36.60
Corporal	36.00	40.20
Sergeant	38.00	44.00
First sergeant	51.00	60.00

Q.—Is an army corps a whole army by itself?

A.—It is; but a still bigger army, known as the field army, or simply as "the army," may be made of two or many more army corps. The "armies" holding the European fronts consist of dozens of army corps.

In the United States service an army corps is formed by combining two or more divisions. Such a corps may consist of corps headquarters, 6 complete divisions, and special corps troops, including 1 pioneer regiment of infantry, 2 regiments of cavalry, 1 anti-aircraft machine-gun battalion, 1 anti-aircraft artillery battalion, 1 trench mortar battalion, 1 field battalion, signal corps, 1 telegraph battalion, 1 aero wing, 1 regiment of engineers, 1 pontoon train, 1 corps artillery park, 1 remount depot, 1 veterinary hospital, 1 bakery company, 1 supply train, 1 troop transport train. In addition, 1 artillery brigade, 1 sanitary train, and 1 corps engineer park may be formed from detachments from the divisional organizations. Its approximate strength is 185,000 officers and men.

Q.—How big is an American army corps in France?

A.—In March, 1918, it was decided to make an army corps of six divisions in order to conform to the "three-line" warfare at the front—two divisions to hold a front line, two divisions behind them for re-enforcement or replacement, and behind them again another two divisions for the same purpose.

Q.—Is a staff officer the member of a commanding officer's staff?

A.—Any officer assigned to the staff of a commander, large or small, is known as staff officer. But the "staff" of an army is far more important and diversified than that. The "staff" branches of the army are all the branches that are not in the three fighting branches, infantry, artillery and cavalry.

There are nine other branches, and these are the staff. They are: General staff corps, composed of specialists and authorities in tactics and strategy; adjutant general's department; judge advocate general's department; engineer corps; signal corps; medical department; quartermaster corps; ordnance department. The first four contain only officers. The others contain officers and specially trained enlisted men.

Q.—Is an army general as big a man as a naval admiral?

A.—He is, in the American service. The two ranks compare exactly alike. We have, however, had very few soldiers of the rank of full General. In fact, we have had only four in our whole history —Washington, Grant, Sherman and Sheridan. The way the other ranks compare is:

Lieutenant-General ..... Vice-Admiral
Major-General .....Rear-Admiral
Brigadier-General ..... Commodore
Colonel ..... Captain
Lieutenant-Colonel ..... Commander
Major ..... Lieutenant-Commander
Captain ..... .Lieutenant
First Lieutenant.Lieutenant, junior grade
Second Lieutenant ..... Ensign

There are no more Commodores, by the way, in active service. It is a title used only in the retired list.

Q.—Why do none of the army officers we see wear a sword?

A.—The sword has gone out of use in field service, and officers now wear swords only in full-dress parade or on full-dress ceremonial occasions. In the field, officers carry a revolver or an automatic pistol for side-arm; and in actual fighting they may or may not use a rifle, according to circumstances.

Q.—How can a young man get into West Point?

A.—Up to 1915 every applicant for admission to West Point had to stand physical and mental examinations. Since 1915 a candidate may be admitted without mental examination on presentation of a certificate showing adequate preparatory training.

Each Congressman has the naming of two, under the last law providing that two are to be appointed from each congressional district, two from each Territory, four from each State at large, and 80 from the United States at large. The President is authorized to appoint cadets from among the enlisted men of the United States Army and the National Guard, the total number so selected not to exceed 180 at any one time.

Q.—Just what is West Point?

A.—It is the government training school for the officers of the Regular Army. The United States Military Academy at West Point was established by act of Congress in 1802. In 1843 Congress provided that the corps of cadets at the academy should consist of one from each congressional district, one from each Territory, one from the District of Columbia, and ten from the United States at large, all to be appointed by the President of the United States. Under this plan, as expanded from time to time, the number of authorized cadetships in 1915 was 706, but in that year 79 cadetships were unfilled. The act of May 4, 1916, authorizes an increase of cadetships to 1,332, and provides that the increase shall take place in four annual increments as nearly equal as practicable.

Q.—What officers wear spurs?

A.—All those entitled to a mount wear spurs.

Q.—What is a soldier's equipment?

A.—Besides his extra clothing a soldier carries a blanket, a rubber poncho, a canteen, a mess kit, including meat can, knife, fork, and spoon, a cup, toilet articles, a first-aid package, and some minor belongings.

One of the most useful pieces is one-half of a shelter tent, with rope and pins. The shelter tent is said to be a French invention which was introduced into the American Army during the Civil War. In the Army it is often called a "dog tent," because of its shape and small size. Two men can combine their halves and set up a shelter tent in a few minutes. While it cannot be described as roomy, it is just what its name implies, a "shelter" from wind and rain. It is used only in temporary camps.

Each soldier in a modern army carries with him sufficient food, clothing, shelter, fighting arms, and ammunition to take care of himself for a short period in case he should be separated from his comrades.

Q.—What weight must an American infantryman carry?

A.—The total weight of his load, in addition to the clothes he wears, is 50 to 70 pounds. The number of articles is surprisingly large. They are so devised, however, that by ingenious methods of packing and adjusting they can all be carried with the least possible effort. This load is much lighter than that of the Germans and the French. It is probably the lightest weight equipment in any army.

Q.—How many cartridges does a soldier carry?

A.—The amount of ammunition which an American infantryman carries into battle is usually 220 rounds. In an advanced firing position, where it is difficult to bring up reserves of ammunition, it is necessary to shoot with care not to waste cartridges.

Q.—Do all soldiers carry entrenching outfits?

A.—All infantrymen do. In modern warfare the intrenching tool is a positively vital part of fighting equipment. The eight men in each squad carry 8 tools: 4 shovels, 2 pick mattocks, 1 polo or hand ax, and 1 wire cutter. In ordinary soil they can quickly throw up a shallow trench which will protect to a great extent from the enemy's fire. After a trench has once been started, it can be deepened and extended, even in the face of the enemy, without the soldier exposing himself to direct fire.

Q.—What is the soldier's first work in the morning?

A.—The soldier must get up about 6 o'clock, a little earlier in summer and a little later in winter. The buglers sound the call known as reveille. The men dress and fall in.

The first thing is military drill which consists of "setting-up exercises," and occupies the first few minutes of the day. They consist of certain exercises of the head, arms, trunk, and legs, designed not merely to develop muscles but also to increase skill, control of the body, and self-reliance.

Then comes "washing up" and breakfast. Usually breakfast is followed by a half-hour for cleaning the barracks and bunks and putting clothing and bedding in order. Frequently the company commander will inspect the barracks immediately to make sure that every man has attended to his part of the work. There is then often some time which the soldier uses for attending to his personal needs, tidying up his clothing, and the like.

The remaining two or three hours of the morning are likely to be spent in drill, at first in "close order" and later in "extended order" also. During the drill there are numerous short periods of rest.

In most camps guard mounting comes about noon. This consists of relieving the men who have been guarding the camp and turning over this duty to new men. Each soldier mounts guard not oftener than once a week, unless he is ordered to double duty as punishment.

Q.—Are soldiers in camp kept busy all day?

A.—They are, in training camps and in garrison. After guard mounting the men go to dinner, which comes at 12 o'clock. At least one hour is always allowed for dinner and rest.

During the afternoons the work is varied to include additional setting-up exercises and other drills, target practice and bayonet exercises. About 5 o'clock comes the evening parade and "retreat," when the flag is lowered or furled for the night. The band plays "The Star Spangled Banner," while all officers and soldiers stand at attention.

Supper comes between 5 and 6 o'clock and is followed by a period of rest. Taps are sounded by 10 o'clock. This is the signal to put out all lights, retire, and keep quiet.

U. S. ARMY—INSIGNIA OF RANK

COLLAR INSIGNIA
Officers

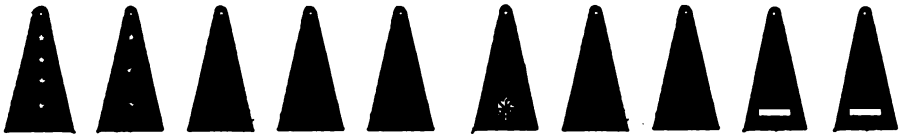
Worn in connection with collar insignia of service on both sides of blouse or shirt collar.

Cap Device
Commissioned Officers
U. S. Army

COLLAR INSIGNIA
Enlisted Men

Worn on right collar of blouse or shirt with insignia of branch of service on left collar.

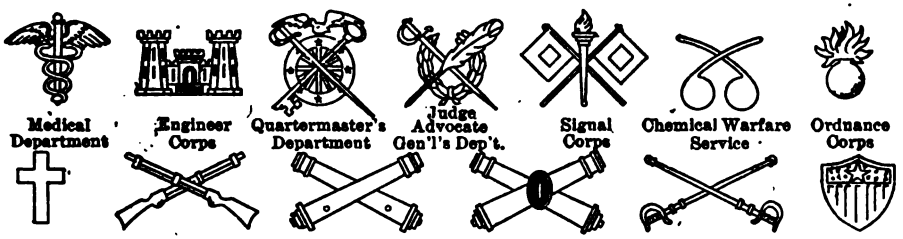
COMMISSIONED OFFICERS SHOULDER LOOPS



General | Lieutenant General | Major General | Brigadier General | Colonel | Lieutenant Colonel (Silver) | Major (Gold) | Captain | First Lieutenant (Silver) | Second Lieutenant (Gold)

EMBLEMS OF CORPS AND DEPARTMENTS OF THE U.S. ARMY

Worn on collars of Commissioned Officers. Also worn as buttons on collars of Enlisted Men.



Medical Department | Engineer Corps | Quartermaster's Department | Judge Advocate Gen'l's Dep't. | Signal Corps | Chemical Warfare Service | Ordnance Corps

Chaplain | Infantry | Field Artillery | Coast Artillery | Cavalry | Adjutant Gen'l's Dep't.

INSIGNIA OF THE ARMY AVIATION SERVICE

Enlisted Men | Enlisted Aviator | Military Aviator | Observer | Enlisted Mechanician

Ch. Pharmacist | Ch. Pharmacist

U. S. ARMY—INSIGNIA

CHEVRONS AND SPECIALTY MARKS

Worn on blouse or shirt sleeves of Enlisted Men

Regimental Sergeant Major | Regimental Supply Sergeant | Battalion Sergeant Major | Color Sergeant | First Sergeant | Company Supply Sergeant | Ordnance Sergeant | Sergeant | Corporal

Quartermaster Sergeant | Master Electrician | Master Engineer | Master Hospital Sergeant | Engineer Coast Artillery | Master Gunner | Ch. Mechanic Field Artillery

FIELD AND COAST ARTILLERY

Farrier | Mess | Horseshoer | Wagoner | Saddler

Mechanic | Bandsman | Bugler | Figure of Merit | Gun Commander

Observer First Class | Observer Second Class | Casement Electrician | Gun Pointer | Chief Loader

First Class Gun or Mortar Co. | Second Class Gun or Mortar Co. | First Class Gunner Mine Co. | Second Class Gunner Mine Co. | Cook

UNITED STATES NAVY

CAP DEVICES

Marines

Navy
Commissioned Officer

Navy
Warrant Officer

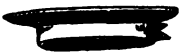
Navy
Chief Petty Officer

ENLISTED MEN

Navy

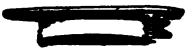
On ribbon
U.S.S. AND NAME OF VESSEL

Naval Militia



On ribbon
NAVAL MILITIA

Naval Reserve



On ribbon
NAVAL RESERVE FORCE

SERVICE COAT COLLAR DEVICES—NAVY

(Marines show rank on shoulder loop as in Army.)

LINE OFFICERS

Admiral of the Navy

Admiral

Vice Admiral

Rear Admiral

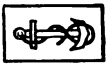
Captain

Commander
Silver Leaf

Lieutenant Commander
Gold Leaf

Lieutenant

Lieutenant Junior Grade



Ensign

STAFF OFFICERS

Same as equal rank of line officers, but corps devices appear in place of anchors

CORPS DEVICES

Medical

Pay

Prof. Math.

Naval Constructor

Civil Engineer

Dental Officer

Chaplain

CHIEF WARRANT OFFICERS, WARRANT OFFICERS, MATES

Ch. Boatswain
Boatswain

Ch. Gunner
Gunner

Ch. Machinist
Machinist

Ch. Carpenter
Carpenter

Ch. Sailmaker
Sailmaker

Ch. Pharmacist
Pharmacist

Chief Pay Clerk
Paymaster's Clerk

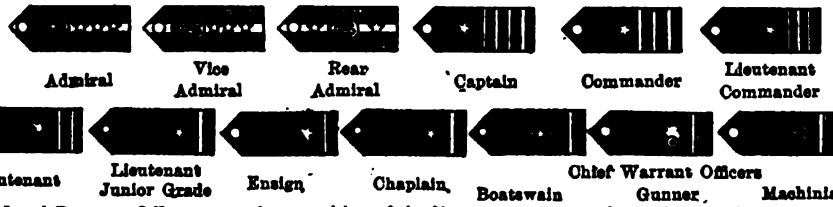
Midshipman

Mate

NAVY—INSIGNIA OF RANK

COMMISSIONED AND CHIEF WARRANT OFFICERS' SHOULDER LOOPS

(Worn with White Summer Service Uniform)



Admiral | Vice Admiral | Rear Admiral | Captain | Commander | Lieutenant Commander

Lieutenant | Lieutenant Junior Grade | Ensign | Chaplain | Boatswain | Chief Warrant Officers Gunner | Machinist

All Naval Reserve Officers, serving on ships of the line, transports and supply vessels, wear same stripes as line officers of Navy but with a gold anchor on shoulder loop in place of gold star.
Officers on shore duty, scout patrol and similar craft wear the stripes without star or anchor.
Staff officers wear same stripes but with corps device in place of star.

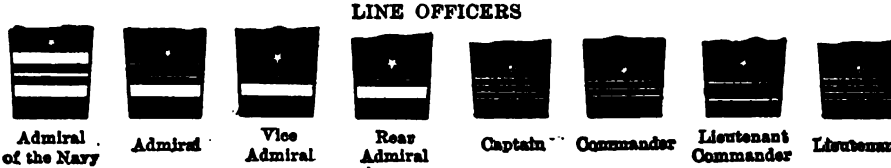
CHIEF PETTY OFFICERS SHOULDER LOOPS

Gunner | Boatswain | Carpenter | Warrant Machinist | Mate | Pay Clerk

SLEEVE MARKS OF COMMISSIONED AND WARRANT OFFICERS——NAVY.

Staff officers same stripes, but instead of stars, corps colors are used with stripes.
Corps colors: Medical, maroon; Pay, white; Prof. Math., olive green; Civil Eng., blue; Med. Res., crimson; Dental, orange.

LINE OFFICERS

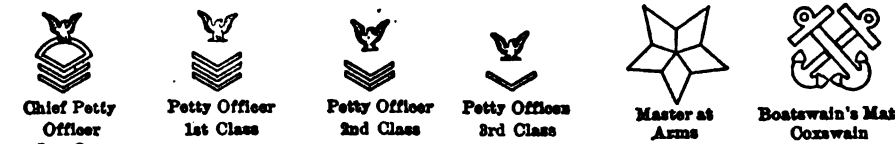


Admiral of the Navy | Admiral | Vice Admiral | Rear Admiral | Captain | Commander | Lieutenant Commander | Lieutenant

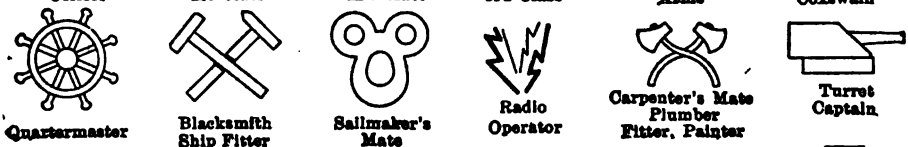
Lieutenant Junior | Ensign | Midshipman 1st Class | Midshipman 2nd Class | Ch. Boatswain Ch. Gunner Ch. Machinist | Ch. Carpenter Ch. Sailmaker Ch. Pharamcist | Boatswain Gunner Machinist Mate

Naval Reserve Officers of the line wear gold anchor in place of star.
All other officers wear stripes without star or anchor.

RATINGS AND A FEW SPECIALTY MARKS——NAVY

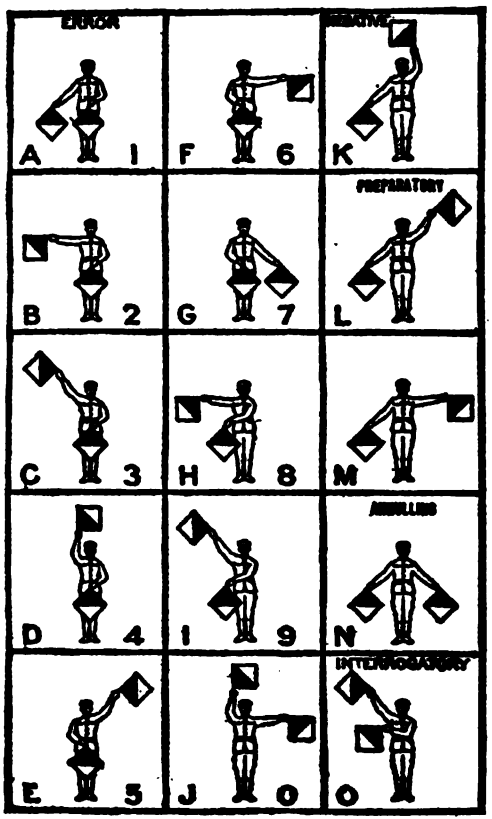


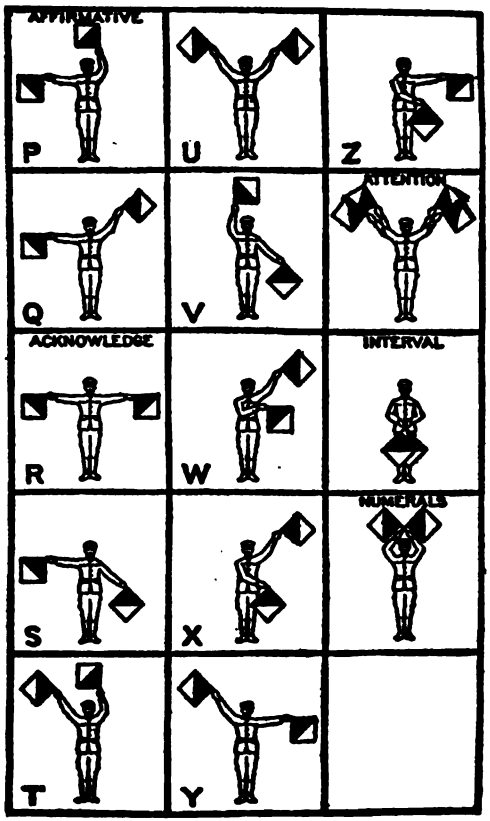
Chief Petty Officer | Petty Officer 1st Class | Petty Officer 2nd Class | Petty Officer 3rd Class | Master at Arms | Boatswain's Mate Coxswain



Quartermaster | Blacksmith Ship Fitter | Sailmaker's Mate | Radio Operator | Carpenter's Mate Plumber Fitter, Painter | Turret Captain

Gunner's Mate | Storekeeper | Yeoman | Electrician | Machinist's Mate | Hospital Corps





HOW LETTERS AND NUMBERS ARE TELEGRAPHED BY FLAG SIGNALLING

IDENTIFICATION OF FIGHTING MEN

Q.—How are our soldiers identified?

A.—A "Statistical Division" with a foreign branch in Paris takes care of this. Every man in the Army, whether officer or private, is indexed by name, and the records filed in alphabetical order for immediate reference, should the names appear either in Army orders or casualty lists. With the description of each soldier is given the name of his next of kin with emergency address.

Each soldier wears about his neck and underneath his clothing a small tag giving his name and company. The foreign branch of the Statistical Division has the fighting forces listed by regiments, as well as alphabetically. Whenever the names of soldiers figure in official dispatches, duplicate sets of records kept at Washington will afford quick reference.

Q.—How are our sailors identified?

A.—Every officer and enlisted man in the United States Navy wears a metal identification tag which bears the wearer's name, the date of his birth and enlistment, and, in the case of an officer, his rank and date of appointment. On the other side is etched the finger print of his right index finger. This is a part of what naval officers regard as the best system of identification known, superior to that in use in European armies and navies.

Q.—What is the identification tag?

A.—The identification tag consists of an oval plate of monel metal 1.25 by 1.50 inches, perforated at one end and suspended from the neck by a monel wire encased in a cotton sleeve. A copy of each finger print on paper is supplied to the Bureau of Navigation, Navy Department, where it is filed in the identification section, this particular work being in charge of J. H. Taylor, finger-print expert, who devised the tag adopted.

Q.—What is monel metal?

A.—Monel is the alloy used for battleship propellers. It was chosen in preference to brass or any other metal because it is unaffected by heat, not melting until it has reached a temperature of 2,480 degrees Fahrenheit. It will not corrode, and is not affected by salt water. On each ship and at each naval station a hospital-corps officer has charge of the preparation of the tags.

Q.—How are finger-prints taken?

A.—The finger-print is taken in ink on the metal. The name and dates are then written on the tag, which is sprinkled with powdered asphaltum and held over an alcohol lamp until the asphaltum melts into the ink. The tag is then placed for an hour in a nitric-acid bath, which etches the finger-print and inscription on the metal.

Q.—What is the chance of mistakes?

A.—There is not one chance in 65,000,000, the finger-print experts estimate, of a mistake in identification, as there are 65 characteristics in each finger and only one chance in 1,000,000 of the fingers of any two persons having the same characteristics.

Q.—Are our soldiers not numbered, also?

A.—The War Department has decided to assign a number to each enlisted man in the armies of the U. S. These numbers (beginning at No. 1 and continuing without limit and without alphabetical prefix or affix) will be stamped on the metal identification tags now worn by the soldiers.

Q.—How does France tag her soldiers?

A.—France uses a German-silver identification tag for each soldier. It was intended to be worn on a string about the neck and hidden under the shirt, but the majority of "poilus" prefer to wear the tag on a chain about the wrist. In 1915 it was decided to provide two tags, so that for identification purpose, one was to be removed by the authorities and the other was to remain on the body for future identification.

Q.—Are the British tagged?

A.—The British Tommy, at the beginning of the war, wore a circular aluminum tag hanging on a string about his neck,

containing his draft number, initials, name, regiment and religion. Owing to the scarcity of aluminum, it was decided in November, 1916, to adopt a new system. It consists of two tags, one octagonal and red, the other round and green, and suspended from the first. In case of death, the green tag is removed and the red one left for future identification.

The Belgians, in 1915, adopted the French model, fastened to the wrist by a chain bracelet.

Q.—What is the Italian system?

A.—The Italian identification tag (adopted in 1915) consists of an ornate book-like locket, containing a folded paper record suspended on a string around the neck. This record gives the wearer's full name, military class, recruiting district, names of parents, residence of immediate family, regiment, vaccination records and wounds.

The Serbian soldier, in the beginning of the war, used an identification tag which was simply a metal plate sewed on the inside of his tunic. This method has now been replaced by the French identification tag.

Q.—Were Russian soldiers tagged?

A.—With the exception of those Russians who fought in France, no identification tags were provided for the Russian soldiers. Hundreds of thousands of fallen Russians, therefore, never have been identified, and untold misery and countless legal tangles have ensued because Russia failed to provide these inexpensive tags.

Q.—When did Germany first tag soldiers?

A.—In 1870, in the Franco-Prussian War. Germany entered the present war with the same tag that it had used then. This tag contained the numbers of the army corps, the regiment, the company and the draft. It was worn on a string around the neck. Sometimes a leather pouch protected it.

Q.—Do the Germans still use the same tag?

A.—No. In June, 1915, a more complete tag of larger dimensions and oval in shape was adopted. It carried the names, residence, dates of birth, mobilization data, and a number of numerals and letters.

In November, 1916, still another model was adopted by the German Army. It was even larger than the preceeding one, and made in a split form. The two halves, one the duplicate of the other, are separated by a serrated line, which makes it easy to detach one half of the identification tag, while the other half remains on the body of the fallen soldier.

The Turks use a round tag of metal carrying the name, first name, and regimental number of the soldier, while the Austrians use a locket similar to that of the Italians. This is worn on a string which the soldier wears around his neck.

Q.—How are the Chinese soldiers drafted and tagged?

A.—They are first put through a thorough physical examination by the British or French surgeon—an event in the Chinaman's life, who, probably, has never seen a European physician before.

As all Chinese look alike to the European officers who are to control him later, they simply must have a ready and sure means of identification. A steel bracelet with his number engraved upon it is marked with other data about the soldier in the official records. This bracelet is riveted about the owner's wrist, and none other than a blacksmith can remove it.

His queue is next shaved off by a barber (for the sum of eight cents), and the celestial is treated to the surprise of his life. He gets a bath, and a brand-new suit of soldier clothes. He is ready then to go aboard the transport with all his belongings in a huge bundle on his back.

THE PRISONER OF WAR

Q.—What did we do about American prisoners in Germany?

A.—We arranged an American-German conference on prisoners of war and their treatment, to be held in Berne during autumn, 1918, under the presidency of the Swiss Government, to discuss compensation, care and treatment as well as exchange under certain conditions.

Q.—Who were the American delegates?

A.—The American delegates as appointed August, 1918, were: John W. Garrett, American Minister to the Netherlands, Chairman of the delegation; Major Gen. F. J. Kernan, U. S. A.; John W. Davis, Solicitor General of the United States; Captain H. H. Hough, U. S. N.; Commander Raymond Stone, U. S. N.

Assistant delegates were: Ellis Loring Dresel, War Trade Board representative in Switzerland; Christian A Herter, special assistant in the Department of State, secretary of the delegation; Colonel Ulysses S. Grant, 3d., U. S. A.; Colonel Samuel G. Shartle, U. S. A.; Charles Moorefield Storey, attorney in the Department of Justice; Major James H. Perkins, Commissioner of the American National Red Cross. Lewellyn N. Snowden was appointed to accompany the delegation as special disbursing officer, and Clinton E. MacEachran as confidential clerk.

Q.—Who had been looking after our prisoners up to that time?

A.—The American government and the Red Cross in conjunction. By arrangement with the enemy, a Red Cross commission in Switzerland was enabled to send regular consignments of clothing, food and other comforts to American prisoners of war.

Q.—Was there anybody in Germany to look after them?

A.—Yes. The Spanish Minister in Germany was charged with our interests and he appointed members of his staff to visit and inspect prison camps where Americans were.

Q.—How many Americans are prisoners?

A.—Up to July, 1918, the number was about 500.

Q.—How were they treated?

A.—Major Robert S. Browne, U. S. Medical Corps, who had been in Switzerland with the Red Cross to look after prisoners, was reported in the newspapers on September 3, 1918, as saying that they were being treated fairly well.

Q.—Is a prisoner of war a convict?

A.—His status is absolutely and specifically different from that of a convict. A soldier who is captured in honorable warfare is entitled to treatment that entails neither stigma nor avoidable hardship.

Theoretically, the captor has the right only to imprison him and hold him safe so that he shall not become a menace. In practice, however, the belligerents erect so many safeguards and regulations that the quality of treatment ranges widely, according to the character of those in command of the various camps.

A prisoner of war, for instance, remains a man who must submit to all military regulations, and who is as subject to discipline and military law as if he were in his own army. A stern commander who is severe with his own men naturally would be a pretty harsh commander of a prisoner camp.

Q.—Did the American Ambassador visit German war-prisoner camps before we entered war?

A.—The American Embassy made regular and stated inspections of all the camps in Germany, under arrangement with the German Government. In this duty the Americans did not represent the United States. They represented Great Britain, whose interests the Americans had taken over when war began. Everything was inspected, the men were questioned, and full detailed reports were made out.

Q.—Are all the prison camps in Germany equally as bad?

A.—Some of the German camps, as is proved by the very exact and carefully considered report of Professor Daniel J. McCarthy, who conducted the work of inspection for the American Embassy, were frightfully bad—not merely bad from a sanitary and physical point of view, but equally bad because of the bru-

tality of the officers and soldiers in charge. Others were much better.

Thus, such camps as Friedrichsfeld, Soltau, Parchim, Dulmen, Wahn, Wunsdorf, and many others, were considered by him as very good indeed. The camps of Minden, Limburg, Wittenberg, Schneidemuhl, Langensalzen, etc., were very bad—"the difference between heaven, relatively, and hell, absolutely," as Dr. McCarthy put it.

He added that it was difficult to estimate the exact proportions of good and bad camps, and that "one might say that taking the problem as a whole, and for the majority of the camps, it was fairly well administered." This judgment, however, had to be qualified because of the many less satisfactory aspects presented by the huge problem of many thousand scattered working camps, many of them being highly unsatisfactory.

Q.—What were the differences between the various camps?

A.—In the best type of concentration, or "parent" camp, the prisoners were organized on a military basis under their own noncommissioned officers, who were responsible for discipline, behavior, and clothing and, in some cases, were in charge of the kitchen as well. In the majority of camps, however, such a complete organization was not permitted; in many camps a partial organization was made, with some authority for the noncommissioned officers; in others the prisoners were treated simply as criminals, without any rights, and were guarded at the point of the bayonet by men who were allowed to use almost any degrree of brutality in enforcing their commands.

Q.—To what was the difference in camps due?

A.—The fact that the army corps commander was practically supreme, and that he handed over the complete charge of the prison camp to the camp commandant, who was often of the same rank as himself, gave opportunity for very good treatment, as it gave freedom for very bad, of prisoners of war. Dr. McCarthy quotes the saying that was general throughout Germany, "Everything depends on the commandant." To a great extent he says, that was literally true.

Q.—What was Dr. McCarthy's general verdict on the German prison camps?

A.—There were so many various aspects that he could not make a summing-up that would be comprehensive. He says that he found prisons appallingly bad, and he found prisons really good; commandants and guards who were brutal, and others who were considerate, kind, and intelligent. Some working camps were bad, some satisfactory.

As an outstanding example of a bad camp; Dr. McCarthy describes that at Minden, which was one of the worst in Germany, and whose conditions he found not only bad but "inexcusable."

One of the best of the "parent" camps was that at Friedrichsfeld, which had been remodeled, Dr. McCarthy explains, "so as to make it comfortable. There was a splendid organization of the camp and every effort was being made to make the men comfortable, guard their health, give them mental and physical relaxation, and to refit them for more useful work in the future."

Q.—How large were the German prison camps?

A.—Most camps were built to hold from ten to twelve thousand men, but some were much larger. The big camp at Parchim held forty thousand men in 1916.

Q.—Did a big force guard the big number of prisoners?

A.—The German practice was to have a guard about one-tenth in strength of the number of prisoners. This guard consisted usually of men who had been in the army, but were too old for active service, or else of young men physically unfit for service in the field.

Barbed wire divided most of the camps into blocks of buildings, and thus prevented any concerted action by the whole number of prisoners, even if there had not been constant watchfulness. In addition, every prison camp was overlooked by many towers with platforms armed with medium-caliber cannon. Thus the prisoners were quite helpless.

Q.—How many prison camps are there in Gemany?

A.—About 150, counting in big and little. There were 105 big camps for prisoners of war alone in 1916. In addition to these, which contained the enlisted men and noncommissioned officers, there were many smaller camps for officers. Then there were three great camps for interned civilians, and there was at least one camp for reserve officers. These were only the actual prison or concentration camps.

Q.—Were these prison camps the only ones in Germany?

A.—No. Those were only the concentration or parent camps. As the prisoners of war were assigned to labor, they went to so-called working camps—camps attached to mines, factores, reclamation projects, etc. In one district alone there were 18,000 of these working camps at the period when the American Embassy made regular inspections.

Q.—Did prisoners work with enough willingness to make it worth while?

A.—The tedium of prison often made men want to work. In addition, most of them were employed in agricultural labor, and the prisoners soon discovered that the rural population was inclined to treat them comparatively well.

As Professor McCarthy reported: "The distinction between the German people and the German Government was here very manifest. The prisoner of war, working in the fields with his employer, eating at the same table and often housed in the same house, lost the character of a hated enemy—the British and French prisoners were, as a rule, popular with their farmer employes and their families and, when well treated, made excellent workmen. The prisoner rarely attempted to escape, and rarely requested to be returned to the parent camp."

Spaking of 1916, Dr. McCarthy said that the efficiency of war-prisoners in agricultural work reached certainly 80 per cent. It was less in industry, but, in a general way, the efficiency throughout appeared to range between 50 and 75 per cent.

Q.—Who keeps prison camps clean? The captor Government?

A.—No. It is the duty of the prisoners of war to keep their camps clean as the daily routine of their duty. Regulations prescribe what they shall do and how they shall do it, just as if they were in their own army. They must also do any other work around the camp, such as road-making, erecting fences and barbed-wire lines, etc.

Q.—How are prisoners punished in a prison camp?

A.—Prisoners of war who disobey orders or commit offenses lay themselves liable to trial, and they may be punished according to the regulations and laws of the country that holds them. Such punishment in serious cases such as mutiny, assaulting guards or assaulting fellow-prisoners, may go even so far as death. Other serious offenses may be punished by terms of imprisonment. The offender then ceases to be a prisoner of war, and becomes a convict.

Q.—Can war-prisoners be legally compelled to work?

A.—Yes. The Hague Convention of 1899 (signed by Great Britain and Germany) says: "The State may utilize the labor of prisoners of war according to their rank and aptitude. These tasks shall not be excessive, and shall have nothing to do with military operations."

Prisoners may be authorized to work for the public service, for private persons, or on their own account.

Work done for the State must be paid according to the tariffs in force for soldiers of the national army employed in similar tasks.

When the work is for other branches of the public service or for private persons, the conditions must be settled in agreement with the military authorities.

The wages of the prisoners shall go towards improving their position, and the balance shall be paid them at the time of their release, after deducting the cost of their maintenance.

Q.—What happens to a prisoner who refuses to work?

A.—Article 8 of the Hague Convention says:

"Prisoners of war shall be subject to the laws in the army of the State into whose hands they have fallen. Any act of insubordination warrants the adoption, as regards them, of such measures of severity as may be necessary."

Q.—Can they be set to forced labor?

A.—Yes. They may be set to forced labor, the only big condition being that they must not be set to work directly at military labor such as munition-making, etc.

Q.—What did our troops do with their German prisoners?

A.—They transferred them to points distant from the front and set them to work at repairing roads and other labor permissible under the Hague conventions.

Q.—Where did Serbia put her 60,000 Austrian prisoners?

A.—It was reported when von Mackensen began his drive from Belgrade that all the Austrian prisoners had been removed to Corsica, but, in view of the immense difficulty the Serbians themselves experienced in getting across the Albanian Mountains, it is pretty safe to assume that they took few, if any, prisoners away with them. As these Austrians, practically unguarded, were scattered all over Serbia, it is probable that most of them rejoined the Austrian Army after the invasion.

Q.—Are German prisoners being used as laborers in England?

A.—According to early 1918 statements in the House of Commons, there were 84,000 German prisoners in British hands. A good number of these are used in road-making and quarrying. Recently the Bucklow Union Committee of the Cheshire War Agricultural Committee applied for prisoners of war for service on the land. Experienced men were to be paid £1 ($5) a week, men without experience 15s. ($3.75). Others are employed in making mail bags, being paid 6d (12 cents) a bag.

Some of the civilian prisoners, also, are engaged in making mail bags, others are employed in quarrying, and it is planned to employ them in clearing forest areas in the near future.

Q.—Did the German prisoners refuse to work?

A.—It was announced in the House of Commons that German prisoners of war had refused to continue quarry work unless they received increased pay and rations. It was further stated, however, that disciplinary action having been taken, the prisoners resumed work.

In the annual reports of several of the larger coal and iron companies reference is made to the fact that German prisoners are being used. In one of these, with headquarters at Middlesborough, between three hundred and four hundred German prisoners are utilized, and the Chairman of Directors stated: "Our management are thoroughly satisfied with the experiment, and the men themselves seem, on the whole, to prefer regular employment with the allowance they can earn rather than the enforced idleness of a prisoners' camp. During the past month, however, at one of our quarries, they struck work, but steps being promptly taken to reduce the rations seem to have brought them to their senses, and I understand most are back at work again."

Q.—What British representatives attended the Anglo-German Hague Conference on prisoners of war?

A.—Six delegates from Great Britain with Sir Robert Younger for chairman and Lord Newton as next in rank. One of the remaining four was Mrs. Darley Livingstone, the first woman to sit in a diplomatic negotiation between nations. She is an American, married to a British officer, and has been member and honorary secretary of the Government Committee (English) on the Treatment of British Prisoners by the Enemy. She is said to have more information and knowledge on the subject of British prisoners of war in all its details than any other person in the empire.

Q.—How many civilians were interned?

A.—There were at the end of May, 1917, 3,600 British civilians interned in German prison camps, and 32,274 German civilians interned in British camps.

Q.—How many prisoners of war are there in Germany?

A.—August 1, 1916, the German Government gave out the following official figures:

	Officers.	Men.
French	5,047	348,731
Russian	9,019	1,202,871
Belgian	656	41,751
British	947	29,956
Serbian	....	22,914

This made a total of 1,646,223, exclusive of the 15,669 officers, up to that time, and it appears to have been considered correct by the American representatives who visited the war-prisons for the British Government.

Q.—How many prisoners have the Germans taken since?

A.—Lord Newton, Minister in charge of prisoners in Great Britain, stated on February 6, 1917, that he estimated the Germans held 1,500,000 Russians, 400,000 French, 50,000 Belgians, and 35,000 British. According to that, the Germans would have captured 300,000 Russians, 44,000 French, 8,000 Belgians, and 4,000 British between August, 1916, and February, 1917.

Q.—What was the British figure at the end of 1917?

A.—The British War Office, on Dec. 29, 1917, announced that the number of British prisoners held by the enemy, including those in Switzerland, totaled 46,712. The prisoners include members of the regular army, territorial forces, Royal Navy and naval division, held in the following countries: In Germany, 43,699; in Turkey, 2,299; in Bulgaria, 628; and in Austria, 86. There are 2,257 officers and 44,455 men.

This statement, compared with Lord Newton's figures of February, 1917, would indicate that between those dates the Germans had taken about 8,000 more men on the western front.

Q.—What was the total number of war-prisoners after two years of war?

A.—It seems to have totaled about 4,175,000 men, taking all armies together. Of these, the Central Powers had by far the most, probably holding at least 1,700,000 more men than the Allies—the big difference being due largely to their great captures of Russians.

Q.—What prisoners did the Allies hold in 1917?

A.—The Russians claim to have taken prisoner some 1,500,000 Austrians and Germans, but they never gave exact figures. The total German losses in prisoners and missing, according to their statement of last August, was 400,000. It is assumed that the French held something like 150,000. The British had 58,000, and the Russians presumably had the rest. The Italians claimed to have captured about 40,000 Austrians. If we add these approximate figures together we get the following result:

In England	58,000
In France	150,000
In Italy	40,000
In Russia	1,000,000
Total	1,248,000

Q.—What prisoners did Germany's allies hold in 1916?

A.—According to the German report, after two years' war the Austrians held 781,566 Russians. They soon added to that total, and it would be perfectly safe to put it down as 800,000; if we do this, and include the Italians, we get the following totals:

In Germany (Lord Newton's estimate)		1,985,000
In Austria—Russians	800,000	
Italians	50,000	
Serbians	40,000	
		890,000
In Bulgaria		38,000
In Turkey		14,000
Total		2,927,000

Q.—How many prisoners had the Austrians in 1918?

A.—According to the German official reports, the Austrians had 890,000 prisoners in 1916. They have, of course, added heavily to that total since then. There has been the big drive into Italy, which added heavily to the number of Italian prisoners and, after that, the drive through the Ukraine. It may be assumed that the Austrians hold well over 1,000,000 prisoners.

Q.—Where did Turkey get her prisoners?

A.—Turkey has, among others, all of General Townshend's army, which surrendered at Kut near Bagdad. Few prisoners were taken at Gallipoli.

Q.—What was the fate of Americans taken in the trench raids in November?

A.—In February, 1918, six of the twelve missing men were reported as being prisoners in the German prison camp of Tuchel, West Prussia. The report showed that with these six were two others, who had been captured in a later raid.

CASUALTIES OF WAR

Q.—Are the losses in this war really greater than ever before?

A.—That was the general belief, and the news dispatches told almost daily of appalling numbers of dead after even a small engagement. However, in 1917, the Committee on Public Information (Washington) made the following statement:

"There is probably little basis for the idea that the number of casualties in this war is any greater, in proportion to the number of men engaged, than in previous wars. In the French Army during the last six months of 1916 (which included three big offensives), the total losses in killed, wounded, and prisoners are officially reported to have been only 1.28 per cent of the French forces under arms."

Secretary of War Baker said, on Nov. 10, 1917:

"Up to about June 1, the losses of the British expeditionary forces in deaths in action and deaths from wounds were about 7 per cent of the total of all men sent to France since the beginning of the war. It may be added that the ratio of losses of this character to-day, because of improved tactics and the swiftly mounting Allied superiority in artillery, is less than seven to every hundred men."

Q.—How did the various Governments report their losses?

A.—Each Government organized a big staff of accountants who received the detailed lists of dead and wounded from the front, arranged them, and sent official notifications to the nearest of kin. Thus, while every family was fully and promptly informed of any of its members dead or wounded, the information, being scattered in detail throughout the whole country, was of no use to the enemy, for nobody could gather all the individual reports, of course.

Q.—Have the nations at war tried to hide their total casualties?

A.—Yes and no. They have tried systematically to hide them from their enemies, of course. Some have also tried in various ways not to dismay their own people by too sudden or drastic a statement of aggregate losses, especially after heavy engagements. For this purpose they have tried many methods and ways of presenting the facts in what they deemed the most advisable form. In consequence, even the most careful statistician with the best accumulations of official statements before him, finds that it is impossible to give accurate and final estimates of the total losses in this war.

Q.—Did the British Government not report its aggregate losses?

A.—Yes. It issued weekly and monthly lists, and then made it a regular thing to issue a weekly list giving in total the number of officers and men killed, wounded or missing.

Q.—How did the outer world get reports of the German losses?

A.—The Germans posted printed local lists in all the town halls, post-offices, and other places where the public could see them and look for the names of friends or kindred. It was easy enough to ascertain the lengths of the columns and, by counting the names in one, to estimate the whole number at a glance. As the country was full of neutrals in the early part of the war, this information went out pretty freely. After some time, however, it was discovered that the German system of army corps, divisions, etc., caused many duplications, the same name being given in different lists in different parts of the country. However, with estimates and the figures given from time to time by the Government, a fairly accurate estimate was reached.

Q.—Have the French made their losses public?

A.—No. The French have maintained consistently that it would give the Germans important information, and in March, 1918, they represented to General Pershing that the American custom of making public full details of names, residences, etc., of killed and wounded was dangerous. General Peyton C. March, acting Chief of Staff in Washington, in discussing the French attitude, repeated that the French Government has never issued a casualty list of any kind since the beginning of the war. The French War Office in Paris transmits the name of every man killed or wounded to the mayor of the town from which he came, and this official notifies the family.

Q.—Has a fairly close estimate of the total killed and wounded ever been made?

A.—In the autumn of 1918 an official American computation was made, and the figures follow on this page. They are given with the caution that they were offered only as estimates. It was not possible to give absolutely accurate figures of losses in man power, owing to the fact that complete casualty lists were not published by all the belligerent countries, Great Britain being the only European power that published such lists regularly up to the time the calculation was made. The figures given here, therefore, must be accepted only as the closest estimates possible at the end of September, 1918. American casualties are not included, because the American practice of publishing exact figures daily informs the nation fully and continuously.

Q.—What were these casualty estimates at the end of September, 1918?

A.—They were as follows, for the first four years of the war:

Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, Serbia, and Roumania—total killed, 4,811,641; total wounded, 5,740,073; total casualties, 10,551,714.

Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria—total killed, 2,970,836; total wounded, 6,738,717; total casualties, 9,709,553.

At this time, no exact figures were available for the losses of brave Belgium. An estimate which approximates the Belgian losses in the first four years of war reasonably well, is that Belgium's total casualties in killed and wounded were far over 165,000, counting those wounded who returned to the front after being healed. Figures furnished for this book at the end of September, 1918, by Major Leon Osterrieth, Chief of the Military Belgian Mission, were that Belgian losses in killed and disabled wounded who could not return to the front were between 135,000 and 150,000.

Q.—How many men were killed altogether and how many were wounded, counting both sides together?

A.—For the nations named in the preceding statement, these figures gave a total of 7,782,477 men killed in the first four years of the war without counting in the Belgian killed. The total wounded on all sides were figured as 12,478,790, without counting in Belgian's wounded.

Q.—What grand total of casualties for both sides did this make, adding killed and wounded together?

A.—They would total, with estimates of 150,000 Belgian killed and wounded included, 20,411,267 men. Of the wounded, as the various estimates on the next page show, 79 to 80 per cent recover so well that they can return to active service. A very big proportion is able to return to the actual fighting line, and the rest return to duties closely or importantly connected with active fighting. Therefore the huge number of wounded does not remotely represent men who will return to civilian life disabled.

Q.—How were the casualties distributed among the various nations?

A.—The following table is the official American computation already mentioned:

	Dead	Wounded	Total Casualties
ENTENTE POWERS			
Great Britain	434,774	979,154	1,413,928
France	1,375,069	1,600,279	2,975,384
Russia	2,762,064	2,466,572	5,228,636
Italy	63,250	182,898	246,148
Serbia	76,484	261,170	337,654
Roumania	100,000	250,000	350,000
Total	4,811,641	5,740,073	10,551,714
CENTRAL POWERS			
Germany	1,812,500	4,569,820	6,382,320
Austria-Hungary	964,368	1,779,317	2,743,685
Turkey	182,644	370,452	553,096
Bulgaria	11,324	19,128	30,452
Total	2,970,836	6,738,717	9,709,553
Grand Total	7,782,477	12,478,790	20,261,267

Q.—What proportion of wounded men die?

A.—Modern surgery has so progressed that only about eight per cent of the wounded fail to survive. Of the remaining 92 per cent, about 20 per cent are more or less permanently disabled. The rest are able to return to the firing line. Thus, about 72 per cent of the wounded recover.

Q.—Is it true that more than ninety per cent of the German wounded recover and return to the front?

A.—The German military authorities declare that 89 per cent return to duty. The Committee on Public Information, in its "Home-Reading Course for American Citizen Soldiers," says:

"Even in the early months of the war it was announced that of the wounded actually treated in French hospitals, 54.5 per cent were returned to duty within a short time; 24.5 per cent were sent home to complete recovery, and later returned to duty; 17 per cent at the time of making the report were still in hospitals, with the probability of complete recovery; 1.5 per cent were unfit for further service; 2.5 per cent had died from the effects of their wounds."

This would make 79 per cent of the wounded returning to duty, and, adding the 17 per cent who were listed as probably sure to recover, it would make 96 per cent.

However, it is extremely unlikely that this great percentage can all return to the fighting work known as "active duty." A big proportion must, no doubt, be assigned to easier work, behind the lines, guarding communications, etc.

Q.—What was the ratio of killed in the third year of war?

A.—Much less than it had been in the earlier periods. In March, 1918, a United States Government report said:

"It appears that the killed in action and died of wounds have not exceeded one-fifth of the total casualties. Approximately four-fifths survive. Some among these recover completely, developing 100 per cent of their former vocational efficiency; some recover partial efficiency in their old employment; some are incapacitated totally for their old employment, but are capable of greater or less efficiency in other employments, provided they get the vocational training required to overcome their specific handicaps; some are totally incapable for any sort of vocational training.

Q.—Has the rate of casualties decreased steadily in this war?

A.—Yes. In France, for instance, the ratio of casualties was highest during the opening period of the war, in which the battles of Charleroi and the Marne were fought. In each six months of the years 1915 and 1916 the ratio of casualties to men mobilized in the French Army declined: from 2.39 per cent in the first six months of 1915 to 1.68 per cent in the six months following; to 1.47 per cent in the first half of 1916, and to 1.28 per cent in the latter half of that year.

Q.—Is every "disabled" man a hopeless cripple?

A.—An official statement made in Washington early in 1917 said:

"The popular idea that every disabled man is a cripple is disproved by the figures of the inter-Allied conference, held in Paris in May, 1917. These figures show only 167 cases of amputation in every 1,000 disabilities. Consequently, 833 cases in every 1,000 are injuries of other kinds. The men are classified according to their most serious disability, but in 14 or 15 per cent of all cases there are two or three, or even four, injuries. Blindness is given as low as less than 1 per cent of the disabilities, and French figures give the percentage of blindness to be .05 per cent of the soldiers engaged in battle."

Q.—Must we expect many of our boys to return disabled?

A.—Canadian figures, published early in 1918, showed that 10 per cent of the men sent overseas had been returned physically unfit for further military service, and that of this 10 per cent 30 per cent were in hospitals at the time of the report. The majority of these patients were convalescing, since men are not returned to Canada until their physical condition permits.

On the basis of Canadian and of European experience, it would appear that the United States may fairly anticipate that for 1,000,000 men overseas 100,000 will be returned each year unfit for military service, and that the number of patients constantly in the hospitals will be from 30,000 to 50,000.

Q.—Just what number of men are likely to be disabled?

A.—A broad general estimate by American Government experts is as follows:

Number of men in service.....	1,000,000
Number of men returned unfit for military service.....	100,000
Number not requiring vocational re-education.....	80,000
Number requiring vocational re-education:	
Complete	10,000
Partial	10,000

Q.—What have the British casualties been lately?

A.—British casualties reported in December, 1917, reached a total of 79,527, divided as follows: Killed or died of wounds—officers, 1,045; men, 14,805. Wounded or missing—officers, 3,342; men, 60,335. Casualties reported from December 26 to 31 were 9,951, divided as follows: Killed or died of wounds—officers, 65; men, 2,059. Wounded or missing—officers, 238; men, 7,589. The total British casualties for the last six months of 1917 were 521,373, the lowest figure in any one month being 60,373 for August.

Q.—What is the proportion of officers to men killed and wounded?

A.—That is difficult to say, as only Great Britain gives any particulars as to how many officers are among the casualties. It is pretty certain that at the beginning of the war the losses of English officers were heavier than those of the French, Germans or Russians. All neutrals appear to agree that the British officer exposed himself too much, but that fault had been remedied, and they had learned that, after all, an officer is the part of the machinery of an army most difficult to replace. Roughly, there was one officer to every forty men in the British Army. In the early engagements there was one officer to every thirty men in the casualty lists, but sometimes the proportion was as high as one to fifteen.

Q.—Did the German officers suffer equal casualties?

A.—While no comparative figures are at hand, the general news from the beginning of the war indicated that the German officers were not exposing themselves in any degree as were the British. During the great offensive that beat the German armies back from their advanced positions to the old Hindenburg line and beyond (in July, August, September, 1918), the press dispatches carried more and more statements that the German private soldiers were sent forward while their officers remained behind.

Q.—What casualties have the Canadians sustained?

A.—At the end of 1917, the casualties were as follows:

Killed	40,000
Wounded	108,000
Missing	31,955

Q.—What army hospitals have we?

A.—In September, 1918, we had ready or nearly ready the following: General Hospitals—New York: Williamsbridge, Fort Porter (Buffalo), Fort Ontario (Oswego), Otisville, Dansville. New Jersey: Colonia (Rahway), Lakewood, Cape May. Maryland: Fort McHenry, Roland Park. Georgia: Fort McPherson (Atlanta), Fort Oglethorpe. Hot Springs, Arkansas; Fort Bayard, New Mexico; San Francisco; Takoma Bridge, D.C.; Biltmore, Waynesville, Azalea, N. C.; Corpus Christi, Texas; New Haven, Conn.; Markleton, Penn.; Boston; Whipple Barracks, Arizona; Denver; Richmond, Va.; Fort des Moines, Iowa. Base Hospitals—Camp Upton, Plattsburgh, Camp Mills, N. Y.; Camp Beauregard, La.; Camp Bowie, Camp Logan, Camp McArthur, Camp Travis, Fort Bliss, Fort Sam Houston, Texas; Camp Cody, N. M.; Camp Custer, Mich.; Camp Devens, Mass.; Camp Shelby, Miss.; Camp Dix, N. J.; Camp Dodge, Iowa; Camp Doniphan, Okla.; Edgewood Arsenal, Camp Meade, Md.; Camp Eustis, Camp Humphreys, Camp Lee, Virginia; Camp Fremont, Camp Kearney, Cal.; Camp Gordon, Camp Hancock, Camp Wheeler, Ga.; Camp Grant, Ill.; Camp Jackson, Camp Sevier, Camp Wadsworth, S. C.; Camp Greene, N. C.; Camp Johnston, Fla.; Camp Lewis, Wash.; Camp McClellan, Camp Sheridan, Ala.; Camp Pike, Ark.; Camp Sherman, Ohio; Camp Taylor, Ky.; Fort Benjamin Harrison, Ind.; Fort Logan Roote, Ark.; Fort Riley, Kansas. Jersey City, N. J. There were also six great embarkation and disembarkation hospitals in the port of New York.

Q.—What causes the most casualties?

A.—During trench warfare apparently the chief cause of casualties was the explosive shell, including shrapnel. Bayonet wounds, despite the frequent reference to this weapon, were decidedly in the minority. During the more open fighting of 1918 the machine-gun appeared to have produced most casualties.

Q.—What were the British casualties in the Gallipoli campaign?

A.—It was officially stated that up to December 9, 1915, the total number of British casualties at the Dardanelles were as follows:

Killed—	
Officers	1,667
Others	24,535
Wounded—	
Officers	3,028
Others	72,781
Missing—	
Officers	350
Others	12,194
A total altogether of..	114,555

The Australian casualty lists, as published there up to the end of March, 1916, gave the following total:

Dead—	
Officers	347
Others	6,443
Wounded—	
Officers	262
Others	10,118
Missing—	
Officers	19
Others	1,887
A total altogether of..	19,076

If we deduct this from the 114,555 British casualties) we get the losses (95,000), which were sustained by British forces, other than Australian, on the Peninsula. It is reasonable to assume that, as the British losses were five times as great as the Australian, there must have been five times as many British and Indian troops used on the peninsula as there were Australian. In addition, there were a large number of French soldiers used at Krithia.

Q.—How much does it cost to kill a soldier?

A.—The French General Percin has estimated that in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71, it cost $21,000 each; in the Russo-Japanese War of 1905, it cost $20,500. It is impossible to make even a rough estimate as to the amount it costs to kill a man in the present war. It is undoubtedly costing more to kill one now than it did in 1914. If we assume that during the first three years the total number of men killed was 3,000,000, and the total amount of cash expended by the belligerents on the war was $75,000,000,000, it would work out at $25,000 per man killed.

Q.—Is it true that the Germans use moss instead of cotton wool for dressing wounds?

A.—The Germans are not alone in using it. Sphagnum moss is used by all the armies. Special machinery has been devised to prepare the moss for use. It is washed first and freed from any foreign substance. It then is wrung out and passes to the drying room. After being thoroughly dried it is weighed and compressed in powerful hydraulic presses. It is being widely used now, giving indeed much better results than cotton wool. Its healing powers were discovered quite by accident. A worker met with a serious injury in a peat moss litter works, and, no appliances being handy, his fellows laid moss litter on the wound and bandaged it up. When the man reached a hospital, the doctors were horrified at the dirty-looking litter, and declared that the limb would have to be amputated. They found, however, that far from poisoning the wound, as they had feared, the injury had been actually cleaned by the rude emergency dressing. Thus was "discovered" sphagnum moss from the surgeon's point of view.

Q.—Are all soldiers vaccinated against typhoid?

A.—Yes. All the British, French, German and American soldiers are inoculated against typhoid on the American plan, which proved singularly successful only recently when our troops were on the Mexican border. The Japanese used the system, or one like it, in the Russo-Japanese War with wonderful results.

Q.—Are our soldiers vaccinated against anything else?

A.—Yes. They get a series of inoculations. They are, of course, vaccinated

against small-pox. In addition, they are inoculated against the pneumonia germ, against measles and scarlet fever, and specialists were working in 1918 to find the germ of the dreaded "trench fever."

Q.—What is tetanus?

A.—It is the disorder known by the common name of lockjaw. It is caused by the *bacilli tetani*, a germ having its home in the earth. For this reason the grim affliction is so prevalent among wounded soldiers, who often lie for hours with open wounds, on the fields, or in trenches. In acute cases the chance of recovery is exceedingly remote.

Q.—Is there no cure?

A.—There is an antitoxin treatment, first used on an extensive and radical scale during the war. It is not a positive cure, but it has greatly minimized the fatalities.

Q.—What happens to wounded between two lines?

A.—The wounded remain where they fall. It is impossible to remove them. Those who can do so endeavor to crawl away. Succeeding charges go over them. There is no practice in the war of allowing the enemy to remove them from the zone of fire. After the attacks have failed, all those who are severely wounded may have to remain where they are, and the majority die.

Q.—How does care of wounded compare with the Civil War?

A.—The wounded in the Civil War were collected at night by both armies, instead of during the conflict, each side by mutual agreement allowing the other side to carry on the work unmolested.

Little was done toward speeding up the treatment of the wounded, except in a few cases that came to the attention of the army surgeon, as he rode about the battlefield in company with mounted staff officers. He would select a few of the less serious cases, carry them to a favorable place, and give treatment. Only in the latter part of the war were anything like dressing-stations or field-hospitals established, and then only when buildings near by offered temporary shelter.

Q.—Does the medical service suffer heavily in this war?

A.—During three years of war the British Medical Corps suffered 11,667 casualties, with a death-roll of 1,200.

Q.—Are many soldiers incapacitated without being wounded?

A.—Yes. Very many. There are big groups who suffer from functional disturbances of the central nervous system. These cases present paralyses and other disturbances of locomotion, which are purely hysterical, or they show mental disorders which are also functional, but are like true insanity. One of the characteristic cases is that known as "shell shock," due to sudden and unexpected exposure to the vibration and noise of the discharge of high explosives. Much success has been achieved by systems of nerve and muscle education, especially in French institutions devoted to this work.

Q.—Has the war produced new diseases?

A.—Yes—new in the sense that Western and Central Europe had never been afflicted by them before. One is "spotted typhus," carried by the body louse—normally found only in Southeastern Europe. Another disease is known as "trench fever," which is a short, very debilitating fever of low mortality, that incapacitates its victims for an appreciable period.

Q.—Has antisepsis been developed in this war?

A.—Very much so. Dr. Samuel W. Lambert, dean of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, says:

"The greatest additions to the antiseptic treatment of wounds have come from the studies of Dr. Dakin, who has applied the properties of chlorine preparations to the disinfection of wounds. The problem which he solved was to discover strong antiseptics able to destroy microbes without damaging normal tissues. Dr. Alexis Carrel developed a method of using Dr. Dakin's antiseptics by putting into the wounded tissues a system of multiple tubes, and thus keeping the wound constantly washed with the antiseptic solution."

Q.—Can disabled soldiers really be made self-supporting?

A.—Of the men returned in Canada unfit for military service, 80 per cent return to their former occupations without vocational training or are incapable of such training, and 20 per cent require vocational training. One-half of those requiring vocational training, or 10 per cent of those returned unfit for military service, require complete vocational re-educa-

tion, and one-half partial vocational re-education.

Q.—What was the first nation to use her wounded over again?

A.—Belgium, whose depletion has been the greatest, was the first nation successfully to use her men over again. Not only has the large Belgian re-education center of Port Villez been self-supporting, but it has paid back to the Belgian Government the entire capital cost of installation. The men, meantime, have not only received 43 centimes per day, the regular pay of the Belgian soldier, but also 5 to 20 centimes an hour, according to their work. In addition, surplus profits are funded for the men. Forty-three trades are taught at Port Villez under the most competent instructors. A large part of the material for the Belgian Army is made by them.

Q.—What are we going to do about men who are disabled?

A.—Plans for the rehabilitation and re-education of soldiers and sailors disabled in the war, so that they may actually earn higher wages than before their enlistment, have been outlined in two reports submitted to Congress by the Federal Board of Vocational Education. The reports urged an immediate appropriation for the training of teachers for the work and for establishing great schools near hospitals in all parts of the country.

Q.—Has Germany reclaimed many disabled men?

A.—The Federal Board of Vocational Education says:

"It is claimed that Germany uses 85 to 90 per cent of her disabled back of the lines, and that the majority of the remaining 10 to 15 per cent are entirely self-supporting."

Q.—What is the difference between indemnity and reparation?

A.—In many ways the terms are synonymous. A nation sufficiently victorious to lay down terms that its enemy simply must accept, would be very likely to make only very dubious technical distinction between the two.

Adhering closely to the narrow meaning of the two words, however, there is a decided difference. The payment of indemnity carries with it a confession that the nation paying it has wrongfully caused a war. No nation acknowledges such a thing as a rule. Therefore indemnity in its final essence is a payment exacted under duress from a vanquished nation.

Reparation, on the other hand, may conceivably be a voluntary payment made by a victorious nation. Such reparation would be chiefly a matter of bookkeeping, limiting itself to repayment of actual material values destroyed. It might possibly extend so far as to repay even the war-expenses of the nation getting the reparation, but that is highly unlikely.

Q.—Which would involve the most money—indemnity or reparation?

A.—Indemnity is an arbitrarily fixed sum which the vanquished nation is expected to pay without argument. A victor might exact an indemnity which is actually less than his own material money losses—that is, it might be less than actual reparation would cost. But indemnity generally is a huge sum whose basic principle would be that the vanquished must pay first of all the war-expenses of the victor. To this might be added anything that the victor may choose, or, at least, as much as he might think the vanquished can pay. Such indemnity might include both material and intangible damages—loss of life, of trade, sufferings of the nation at home, loss of trade, injury to national prestige, even injury to national dignity.

BATTLES OF THE GREAT WAR

Q.—What was the most important battle of the war?

A.—Up to August, 1918, the first great battle of the war—the Battle of the Marne—still ranked as the most important. It utterly destroyed Germany's chance for a swift and complete decision. It lasted 4 days and engaged over 2 million men on a 150-mile front. It opened on September 5, 1914, when the French armies suddenly ceased their retreat and a new army from Paris struck hard at the German right wing under von Kluck. This wing was instantly in imminent peril and only marvellously swift intelligence work saved it from dire disaster. As it was, von Kluck, on September 6, managed to bring troops to the threatened point and get respite by counter-attacks until he could withdraw toward the Aisne. The German High Command immediately concentrated vast pressure against the French center under General Foch, threatening to break through. On September 9 he discovered a weak spot between Generals von Bulow and Hausen. He launched a terrific drive against the Prussian Guard, smashed through, and the battle was won, forcing the whole German line to retreat with all speed, the right flank retiring 70 miles and leaving guns, prisoners and flags. The aggregate losses for both sides are estimated at 300,000.

Q.—When did a Russian army make a wonderful escape?

A.—After the fall of Warsaw in 1915, General Hindenburg tried to smash between two parts of the Russian Army, and capture or destroy it in the Pripet Marshes. The Russian situation was so desperate that for a few days total disaster seemed inevitable. But by wonderfully brilliant tactics (among the most brilliant in the war, during which at one time they actually surrounded two German army corps even while they were surrounded themselves) they broke their way out.

The retreat, under the circumstances, could not fail to be disastrous. The Germans made 100,000 prisoners during a week; but the Russian Army, as an army, was saved.

Q.—What was the first pitched battle of the war?

A.—The first pitched battle of the war was in front of Metz after French forces had crossed the German frontier. It was fought while German forces still were in Belgium, before they had made their way into France. The French were defeated.

Q.—What was the most spectacular operation of the war?

A.—Perhaps it was the sea and land attack on the Dardanelles. But the one that was clearest and most graphic to the American people was no doubt the tremendous attack on, and the marvellous defense of Verdun, the military key to the west front, which the German Crown Prince tried to take in 1916. It has been, since 1871, the most important of the French defenses on the eastern frontier between the Argonne and the Vosges.

During the German advance of 1914 Verdun held out under violent attack, although the Germans were able to push a deep salient to the south at St. Mihiel.

In February, 1916, the armies of the German Crown Prince began a furious and sensational assault upon Verdun. At first the German offensive proved irresistible and led to the capture of a large portion of the fortified area around Verdun and of such important forts as Douaumont and Vaux. But the German losses were terrific. Verdun was called "the grave" by German soldiers, and the final check administered to their attacks by the French marked the end of German offensive for a long period on the western front. A counter offensive, organized by General Nivelle in October, 1916, and another in August, 1917, enabled the French at small cost quickly to reclaim practically all the ground they had lost in the great German attack of 1916.

Q.—Is the Chemin des Dames a fort?

A.—No. It is simply a road, but a most important one, because it runs along a crest of hills overlooking the valley of the Ailette River in northern France. Here the Germans retained a foothold after the battle of the Aisne. The French offensive north of Rheims in the summer of 1917 included attacks on the town of Craonne and the Chemin des Dames.

The French success at the Chemin des Dames in June furnished some of the most desperate fighting of the war. German counter attacks against the ridge in

July outrivaled their attacks at Verdun. They failed to dislodge the French from their advantage.

Q.—Why did the Russians not break into Germany early in the war?

A.—They did so twice, but the fortune of war went badly against them. Almost as soon as war began they sent a big army into East Prussia, but August 26-31, 1914, General Hindenburg fought and won the famous Battle of Tannenberg and captured practically the entire army.

In January, 1915, the Russians moved through the Mazurian Lake regions (in the same general territory and with the same general object of over-running East Prussia). They advanced so rapidly that the world expected the certain investment of Koenigsberg and other fortified German cities. But in February Hindenburg again countered and the Russians suffered a terrific disaster in the lakes and swamps, being routed in almost complete disorder and losing more than 40,000 men in prisoners beside the big losses in killed. This great battle ended all Russian attempts to invade Germany. After that the Russians centered their efforts on the Austrian front, so far as attempts at invasion went.

Q.—Why was there such a fight for the Carso?

A.—Because the Carso is a huge mountainous plateau that commands the road to Trieste. It is near the head of the Adriatic and on the coast road from the Isonzo to Trieste. The Italians began a mighty offensive in this region late in May, 1917. Its initial success promised to clear the entire front from Tolmino to the sea. A sudden and absolutely catastrophic Austro-German drive began in this region in October, 1917, and pressed the Italians back to the Piave River after a defeat that bade fair at one time to shatter the Italian resistance and give all Venetia to the invaders. But at the Piave the Italians succeeded in holding fast.

Q.—Was the Gallipoli campaign a failure?

A.—Yes. The British and French forces were withdrawn and the attempt to force the Dardanelles abandoned after eight months fighting in which 115,000 British soldiers alone were killed, wounded or captured.

Q.—To what has the Dardanelles failure been ascribed?

A.—In the first place the almost impregnable nature of the straits made a problem such as rarely has confronted an attacking force. Wonderful heroism was displayed throughout and the world was thrilled by the deeds of the soldiers in the British Gallipoli expedition, but the defense had an immense advantage. Strategically and tactically the military reasons given for non-success have been: lack of sufficient immediate concentration of land forces on the Gallipoli peninsula, due to the necessity for also guarding Egypt; lack of sufficiently close cooperation between army and navy; lack of sufficient heavy artillery. The first attempt, which was made by the navy alone, was a total non-success and for a long time military experts held that it only demonstrated anew that powerful coast-fortifications cannot be reduced from the sea without simultaneous land-actions to assail them in the rear. In 1918, however, Henry Morgenthau, who was in Constantinople at the time as American Ambassador, made the sensational disclosure that both German and Turkish authorities had despaired of holding the city should the bombardment continue.

Q.—Has this front been quite abandoned?

A.—Gallipoli was completely evacuated January 8, 1916.

Q.—Has there been any really decisive battle so far?

A.—No—not decisive in the sense of winning the war. A number of battles have been decisive as changing the phases of the war. Thus the Battle of the Marne in September, 1914, definitely ended the triumphant sweep of the Germans toward Paris, and made impossible their plans for cutting off the French Army, and thus ending the war in the west quickly, before Russia could get ready in the East.

Again the two battles (Tannenberg and the Mazurian Lakes) destroyed the Russian plans for invading Germany.

The first battle of Verdun, February to October, 1916, decided the character of Germany's warfare for a long time thereafter, forcing the Germans to a defensive holding of their line in place of an offensive.

The battles of October and November, 1917, on the Isonzo and related Italian fronts swept away the Italian gains of two years and decisively carried the war into the Italian plains.

Q.—How did the great German offensive of 1918 open?

A.—It began March 21, 1918. About ninety-five German divisions of 12,000 men each were thrown swiftly against the British line on a fifty-mile front from Arras to La Fere. By April 12th they were being held on the north by the British, but on the south they had arrived within 4½ miles of the great railroad from Paris to Calais via Amiens.

On April 9, 1918, they opened a second attack in Flanders north of Lens and gained 10 miles on a 30-mile front. On May 27 they began a rush through the Champagne front and drove forward to the salient Chateau Thierry, establishing the line Soissons-Chateau Thierry and reaching the Marne. They were curiously inactive then until July 15, when they launched a new offensive south of Rheims and crossed the Marne.

Q.—Was it this attack that started the great counter-offensive?

A.—Yes. General Foch, supported by some 300,000 American troops, launched a mighty counter-offensive that began on the western side of the salient and steadily widened in scope and intensified in degree. Between July 15 and 30 this attack cut the German line Soisson-Chateau Thierry and forced the German lines back across the Ourcq to the Aisne.

Q.—Had American troops gained vantage points before this?

A.—Yes. On May 28, 1918, they had captured Cantigny, a town at the extreme western point of the German thrust at Amiens and had thus established a firm defense against further penetration there. Soon after the counter-offensive on the Soissons front began, American troops took Chateau Thierry. They entered it on July 18, 1918, less than a month after the Germans had taken it.

Q.—Was this the beginning of the great German retreat?

A.—Yes. The mighty French, British and American attack at once began to develop the quality of continuing without pause—something new in this war which to that time had seen only short-lived attacks, even when they were on a large scale. Day after day the German armies were driven steadily and quickly backward, giving up huge areas of hard-won ground. Without pause they were struck along the whole wide front—now by the British in the north, now by the Americans, now by the French.

Q.—What part did American troops play?

A.—They played a very effective part—so effective as to earn praise from veteran French commanders, which was undoubtedly earnest and not simply complimentary. There was apparently no striking difference between them and the seasoned troops of Europe. They met furious resistance from German veterans and carried off the victory. Finally, they proved their ability when they struck the famous blow that wrested the equally famous St. Mihiel salient from the Germans.

Q.—What was the St. Mihiel salient?

A.—It was a position south-east of Verdun, held by the Germans in such a manner that it thrust a huge German wedge into that part of the French army zone, making the supply of the Verdun region very difficult and maintaining a constant and serious menace. The Germans had established this salient in September, 1914, and had held it exactly 4 years when the Americans took it.

Q.—When did the American attack begin?

A.—It began (and ended) September 12 and 13, 1918. It ended because in one swift, colossal blow the American army had cut the salient, captured the German troops in it, and forced the German army to abandon the entire area in wild haste. The American troops broke all records in the pace set and distance covered. Artillery preparation had begun at midnight on September 12. At 5 A. M. September 13 our troops went in. Less than 24 hours later the attacking waves from the two sides of the salient met at Vigneulles, and the salient was abolished.

Q.—How many prisoners did we take?

A.—About 25,000 German prisoners were "bagged" in the salient. It was estimated that the German losses must have exceeded 40,000 men, putting 7 divisions out of effective action. So rapid was the German retreat that almost all of the 30 German villages recaptured were intact. More prisoners had been taken than in any twenty-four hours of the war on the French front, and a larger area of French territory recaptured than in any similar period since 1914.

SEA FIGHTS OF THE GREAT WAR

Q.—What was the first naval battle of the war?

A.—The Battle of the Bight of Heligoland, August 28, 1914, between Sir David Beatty's cruiser squadron and a fleet of German cruisers. The Germans lost three cruisers, the *Mainz*, *Köln*, and *Ariadne*, and the British one destroyer. Seven hundred Germans perished and 300 were taken prisoner.

Q.—When and what was the sea battle of Jutland?

A.—May 31-June 1, 1916. It was the greatest naval battle in history, in point of size of ships and tonnage of warships lost. Germany's High Sea fleet, which had been for twenty months idle in the Kiel Canal, dashed out a hundred miles or so from the Jutland coast into the North Sea, under command of Admirals von Sheer and von Hipper, hoping to engage and destroy a portion of the British fleet before the remainder came to its aid.

The British battle-cruiser fleet, under Sir David Beatty, whose business it was to make periodical sweeps through the North Sea for the enemy, gave chase, in the hope of getting between and cutting off the German fleet from its base, while wirelessing for the British battle fleet, the "Grand Fleet," under Sir John Jellico, which proceeded at full speed to join Sir David Beatty. While the Germans do not admit as heavy losses in tonnage as the British admit, the German fleet was glad to scuttle back to its harbors and Great Britain's rule of the seas was not for one moment threatened.

Q.—What ships were lost in the great Jutland battle?

A.—The Germans admit only the following losses:

Ships.	Tons.
Lutzow (battle-cruiser).....	28,000
Pommern (pre-dreadnaught).....	13,000
Rostock (light cruiser).....	4,820
Frauenlob (light cruiser).....	2,667
Weisbaden (light cruiser).....	4,300
Elbing (light cruiser).....	4,300
Five torpedo-boats.....	.....
Total German losses in heavy tonnage	57,087

The British admit the following losses:

Ships.	Tons.
Queen Mary (battle-cruiser).....	27,000
Indefatigable (battle-cruiser)....	18,750
Invincible (battle-cruiser).....	17,250
Defence (armored cruiser).....	14,600
Black Prince (armored cruiser)..	13,550
Warrior (armored cruiser).....	13,550
Eight destroyers.....	.....
Total British losses in heavy tonnage	104,700

This battle was fought May 31-June 1, 1916. Each side for a time declared that the other side had suffered more losses than it would admit, but the *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* for January, 1918, give the ships listed here, and this list agrees with lists given out some time ago.

Q.—Was the "Von Moltke" battle cruiser sunk by a British submarine?

A.—It was reported that she was sunk by British under-water craft, but the Germans denied her loss. In the official German reports about the Jutland battle mention is made of this battle-cruiser as having taken part. When the *Lutzow* was knocked out, Admiral von Hipper transferred his flag from her to the *von Moltke*, according to report.

Q.—What German ships fought at the Falklands?

A.—The German squadron, under Admiral von Spee, consisted of the two armored cruisers *Gneisenau* and *Scharnhorst*, both of 11,420 tons, armed with eight 8.2-inch guns; the *Leipzig*, *Nürnberg* and *Dresden*, of 3,200, 3,350 and 3,544 tons respectively, armed with 4.1-inch guns. There was also a supply ship. The *Dresden*, a sister ship to the *Emden*, was engined with turbines, and, like all turbine boats, was able to develop a higher speed than that on her recorded trials. Her speed enabled her to escape, but she was sunk later when at anchor in Chilean waters. The supply boat also got away, but all the other vessels were sunk, their reciprocating engines only giving the quickest of them a speed of 23 knots.

Q.—What was the British strength?

A.—Admiral Sturdee's fleet consisted of the dreadnaught-cruisers *Inflexible* and *Invincible*, both of 17,250 tons, armed with eight 12-inch guns, and with a speed of 25 knots; the battleship *Canopus*, 12,950 tons, four 12-inch guns, 18.5 knots; the swift cruisers *Glasgow* and *Bristol*, each 4,800 tons, two 6-inch guns; the armored cruiser *Carnarvon*, seven 5-inch guns, 23 knots; and the *Kent* and the *Cornwall*, 9,800 tons, fourteen 6-inch guns, 23 knots.

Q.—What bounty was earned by Admiral Sturdee and his crews?

A.—They received the ordinary bounty of £5 ($25) per head, for each enemy sailor on the destroyed boats. In the Prize Court, held on August 21 and presided over by Sir Samuel Evans, it was proved that the crews of the destroyed enemy ships were as follows:—*Scharnhorst*, 872; *Gneisenau*, 835; *Nürnberg* 384; and *Liepsig*, 341; a total of 2,432. At £5 a head this made the bounty £12,160 ($60,800), which was accordingly awarded to Admiral Sturdee and the officers and and crews, of the *Invincible*, *Inflexible* *Carnavon*, *Cornwall*, *Kent and Glasgow*. The crew of the *Invincible* will never enjoy their share of this money, as that battle-cruiser was sunk in the Horn Reef engagement. The other two vessels of Sturdee's fleet, the *Bristol* and *Canopus*, took no part in the action.

Q.—Did any members of Admiral von Spee's squadron get back to Germany?

A.—According to German papers Lieutenant Otto Schenk, one of the few survivors, did succeed in reaching Germany, after a journey of eight months.

Q.—How is a ship cleared for action?

A.—As soon as the commanding officer gives the order "Clear Ship for Action!" the various organizations aboard the vessel perform the duties in which they have long been drilled for that vital moment. All wooden fittings and articles are removed and either stored out of harm's way or thrown overboard. This is both to prevent fire and to obviate the risk of killing or maiming men by splinters. All metal gear on decks that is not an essential part of the structure is also removed. All instruments, etc., are taken to safe places below the armor belt of the ship. Full head of steam is maintained in all boilers. Galley fires are extinguished Every unnecessary inflammable is thrown overboard. Every station is manned.

Q.—What was the "Emden"?

A.—She was a small protected cruiser, 3,500 tons, 24.5 knots, twelve 4-inch guns. She and her sister, the *Dresden*, were the first light cruisers the Germans fitted with turbine engines, and she made an astonishing war-cruise in the Pacific and Indian Ocean soon after the war began.

Q.—How many ships did the "Emden" sink?

A.—She sank altogether seventeen British steamers, and captured several others, but released them as they contained cargoes belonging to neutrals. The values in the following list include ship and cargo, and are estimated. The total tonnage lost was 74,881, and the value was $11,055,000.

Ship.	Tonnage.	Value.
Indus	3,393	690,000
Lovat	6,102	300,000
Killin	3,544	215,000
Diplomat	7,615	1,500,000
Trabboch	4,015	130,000
Clan Matheson	4,775	190,000
Tymeric	3,314	905,000
King Lud	3,650	200,000
Ribera	3,500	180,000
Foyle	4,147	150,000
Buresk	4,350	260,000
Chilkana	5,140	1,060,000
Troilus	7,562	3,400,000
Benmohr	4,806	815,000
Clan Grant	3,948	640,000
Ponrabbel	478	145,000
Exford	4,542	275,000

Q.—Did the captain of the "Emden" respect the rules of war?

A.—Apparently he was a bright exception to the rule. He disguised his ship by putting up an extra funnel, etc., permissible acts in war. The *London Times*, commenting on the sinking of the ship by the *Sidney*, said that "no deed or brutality or outrage has been recorded against her, and her commander, Captain von Müller, is reported to have treated the

crews of the vessels which he captured with generosity and courtesy." It also referred to the difficulty of the operations undertaken by the *Emden*, and said that "she carried out her part with a daring which friend and foe had equally recognized."

Q.—Did the "Emden" raid Penang Harbor under the Japanese flag?

A.—A British captain, whose ship was in the harbor at the time, said definitely that she was flying no flag at all when she came in, but flew the German ensign when firing on the Russian cruiser. Captain von Müller himself and his crew assert that they never flew any flag but their own in any of the time, if they showed one at all. The only disguise they adopted was to add another funnel. Penang Harbor was entered at night, and the Russians were almost all ashore.

Q.—Did the Allied ships in Penang expect attack?

A.—Evidently not. They were relying on the vigilance of two French destroyers, which were patrolling the two entrances to the harbor. The *Emden* never met the first one, although a pilot boat approached her and fled as soon as it got near enough to see who she was. The first torpedo fired by the Germans did not finish the *Zemtchug*, and the *Emden* turned and dispatched another, which proved fatal. The German officers were near enough to see the Russians hastening up from below in confusion. The cruiser left by the other entrance, and there met and sank the French destroyer *Mousquet*.

Q.—When was the "Emden" finally caught?

A.—She was caught by the Australian cruiser *Sydney* at the Cocos Islands in the Indian Ocean and destroyed after a short engagement on November 10, 1914, three months after she had begun her adventurous cruise. With exception of the few men under von Mucke who managed to escape, her captain and those of her crew who survived were taken prisoners.

Q.—How could the "Emden" hold out so long?

A.—She simply went out into the Indian Ocean, and carefully steamed away whenever she saw foes on the horizon. She had plenty of coal from ships she captured, and during the whole of her peregrinations she seldom steamed faster than twelve knots. She had an exceptionally large crew, having on board the men from a couple of gunboats left at Kiauchau. Thus prize crews could be sent off whenever necessary.

Q.—What became of the "Emden's" men who disappeared from Cocos Islands?

A.—They got away in a sailing boat, and finally reached the coast of Arabia, some 3,500 miles distant from the scene of the disaster which overwhelmed the German raider. From Arabia they went overland to Constantinople. The story of this long wandering through a world of foes is like a modern Odyssey and it has made everybody familiar with the name of von Mucke, the young naval officer who led the little band.

Q.—Which was the greatest naval disaster of the war?

A.—The most serious naval disaster reported up to August, 1918, was the sinking of the French cruiser *Provence*, which was torpedoed on February 26, 1917. It had on board nearly 4,000 men, and of these 3,130 were drowned. The *Provence* was a converted liner used as a transport, and carried eleven guns. No submarine was seen. There never has been such loss of life when a single ship went down before. When the *Lusitania* was torpedoed 1,198 lives were lost; when the *Titanic* sank 1,595 people were drowned.

Q.—Was there a great sea fight in the North Sea, in August, 1914?

A.—No. This fight was officially reported in India, but was subsequently contradicted. The rumor once started, however, has gone on, and constant reference is made to the alleged action in the neutral press. A circumstantial report was made in 1916 about an engagement off the Norwegian coast, but this, too, had no foundation in fact.

Q.—Why were the German cruisers "Goeben" and "Breslau" so much talked of?

A.—Because of their extraordinary escape from the British and French ships in the Mediterranean. They had been apparently trapped, but they succeeded in evading the cordon at the Straits of Otranto.

Apparently surrounded, unable to seek any port without being blockaded or interned, the captains of the two ships succeeded in escaping from the Adriatic into the Mediterranean, made feints at attacking territory on the African coast, "jammed" the wireless of the British and French ships, and succeeded in running the cordon and entering the Dardenelles.

After that they played a part in big international history because their presence apparently had much to do with deciding Turkey's action in joining the war.

Q.—Was Turkey an ally of the Central Powers?

A.—No. Turkey was not then in the war, and occupied the position of a neutral nation.

Q.—What right did Turkey have to give them asylum?

A.—None. Under international law Turkey's duty was to order them out of her ports after a reasonable time for repairs, or else to intern them.

Q.—Why did Turkey not do this?

A.—It was very clear to the whole world, and of course, to Turkey, that sooner or later she would be forced out of her neutrality. Apart from many other reasons that could be conjectured in advance, there was sure to be the demand by Russia and Great Britain for passage of warships through the Dardanelles. Whether she refused or acceded, she was certain to be forced into the war. In this crisis, the accession to her naval force of two such excellent ships was something that had a great deal of weight, and may have hastened her decision.

Q.—Did Turkey's protection of the ships furnish the actual casus belli?

A.—No. Turkey responded to Great Britain's protest by promising to intern the ships and put them out of commission. After a while, she announced suddenly that she had bought them and incorporated them in the Turkish Navy.

Q.—Was this legitimate under international law?

A.—It was a point that opened intricate question. The Allied governments, and everybody else, knew very well that the sale was only a pretended one. But there was a big difference between knowing it and proving it. Therefore, a Declaration of War against Turkey based merely on this episode was not considered advisable.

Q.—Did the Turks retain the names of the cruisers?

A.—They went through all the correct forms, apparently, of placing them into the Turkish service. The *Breslau* was renamed *Midullu* and the *Goeben* was renamed *Sultan Yawuz Selim.*

Q.—Did the two ships play much part in fighting?

A.—In some measure they may be said to have brought on the entrance of Turkey into the war by their activities in the Black Sea. According to Russia, they opened fire on Russian ships. According to Turkey, they were fired on. At any rate, on November 3, 1914, Russia declared war on Turkey. This was followed on November 5 by French and British declarations of war.

Q.—Were they of use during the attack on the Dardanells?

A.—Very little, except strategically. They did not play much part in the defense, so far as gunfire or actual operations went. But they were of great use in helping to guard Turkey's back-door—the Black Sea.

Q.—Were they of any service after the Dardanelles campaign?

A.—They harried the Russian transport service and also kept the Russian coast in more or less unrest, their last fairly important service being the sinking of many small Russian war-craft and merchant ships and the bombardment of of Russian coast in June, 1917. After that they were not heard from much, until January 20, 1918, when there was a sudden action outside of the Dardanelles, which ended in the sinking of the *Midullu* (*Breslau*) and of two British monitors, while the *Sultan Yawuz Selim* (*Goeben*) stranded, but finally got back into the Dardanelles, badly crippled without doubt. The commander of one of the British monitors was Viscount Broome, nephew of Earl Kitchener. He was drowned.

Q.—Has seapower proved its value in this war?

A.—Yes. Despite German military successes on land, the loss of the sea was a vital loss to the Central Powers from the very beginning. It made a wound that never ceased bleeding. It could not be healed. Inexorably it drained away their internal resources by forcing them to exploit them without replacement from without. No money, no supplies could reach them. It destroyed all the Central Powers' commerce, except for such comparatively insignificant dealings as they could conduct with small neighboring neutrals. The entire war, complex though it is, again justified Admiral Mahan's dictum, and quite as sharply as in previous, more simple, wars. Sea power meant an incessantly applied force that won victories even while it was inactive, and that remained unshaken by any campaign fought out on land.

Q.—Had Admiral Mahan's works much influence on the thought of maritime nations?

A.—A great deal—not because he discovered a new priciple but because he showed in a wonderfully clear and thought-inspiring way just what "seapower" really meant and always has meant. His first great work was "The Influence of Sea Power Upon History." It was produced in 1890, while he was a captain, acting as instructor in the Naval College at Annapolis.

Q.—What was the gist of Mahan's teachings?

A.—He showed that the importance of sea power lay not merely in its belligerent might, but in its control over all the commerce and other similar fundamental sources of wealth and strength of nations. He proved his thesis by examples ranging from the Punic wars to modern times. The first book was succeeded by "The Influence of Sea Power Upon the French Revolution and Empire," "The Influence of Sea Power Upon the War of 1812," "The Embodiment of British Sea Power" and various other books. Their effect on maritime governments was decided. An intelligent conception of the true value and functions of navies was their result.

Q.—Where did sea-power first control the world?

A.—In the Mediterranean after the Phoenicians rose to the rank of a great nation. As soon as they took to the sea, they won almost the control of the world so far as it was known then. They reached ultimately as far as Spain with their colonies. From that time sea power remained vital.

Q.—Did the Germans retain control of the sea in the beginning?

A.—No. The German fleet remained in its fortified bases and made no real attempt to dispute sea control with its big ships. There were sporadic engagements almost at once, but there was no attempt by the German grand fleet to open a decisive engagement. It was a drastic illustration of the meaning of sea power.

Q.—How about the German raiders?

A.—They could do harm, amounting to more or less, for a shorter or longer time; but they could not possibly affect the control of the sea. Superior sea power locked them out from their home ports, shut other ports to them and reduced them to cruises of mere adventure, romantic but doomed to an absolute end sooner or later.

Q.—What do naval men mean by stripping ship?

A.—They mean the operation of removing everything not absolutely needed for war. Ships are "stripped" when war impends. All useless wooden work is torn from cabins, etc. Among the articles sent ashore are all trunks, wooden chests, book cases, saluting guns, officers' dress uniforms, presentation plate, unnecessary rugs, curtains, etc.

Q.—What is the call to General Quarters?

A.—It calls the entire crew to battle stations, turrets, fire control stations, rapid fire guns, torpedo rooms, etc. Every gun in the ship is manned and is ready to fire. Fire hose are coupled, torpedoes loaded, men stand by all valves, etc., and all gear is made ready for any emergency. General quarters drill is held at least once a day in peace on every warship.

STRATEGY OF THE WAR
Military and Political

Q.—What was the first act of belligerency that affected outside nations directly?

A.—The immediate severance of all methods of communication with Germany. By cutting cables the Allies at once prevented the Central Powers from reaching any of their agents throughout the world except by wireless or slow secret ways of communication.

Q.—Was this legitimate under International Law?

A.—Cutting cables is an acknowledged and consistently practised right of every belligerent who has the power to do it. Indeed, it is considered one of the formidable instrumentalities for crippling an adversary.

Q.—What were the specific advantages of cutting communications?

A.—The German naval vessels scattered throughout the world were instantly hampered because the German Admiralty could not communicate with them, or, at least, could do so only laboriously. The German Government was cut off from its African colonies, where its soldiers thereafter had to fight on their own initiative without any assistance. The entire American continent became sealed to them, in a large sense, since the wireless was decidedly limited in capacity and the transmission of information by mail or messenger was practically out of the question.

Q.—What could the belligerents gain in neutral countries by making sentiment?

A.—They could hope to bring some neutral countries into the war on their side. They could hope to prevent some neutral countries from abandoning a useful neutrality. Even in countries which they could not hope to win as fellow-belligerents, or which they did not need to fear as possible allies of their enemies, they could hope to make such sentiment that the neutrality would be distinctly in their favor.

Q.—Did either side wish at first to bring the United States into the war?

A.—No. Germany could not hope to, if she wished. The Allies felt at first that they could gain far more, as they frankly said, by American productiveness in food and munitions than by belligerent assistance.

Q.—What was the effort of rival activity in Italy?

A.—Both Austria-Hungary and Germany recognized early that they need not hope for Italy as an ally. Thereafter they worked for the sole purpose of keeping her neutral. The Allies, on the other hand, worked to gain Italy's active military aid. The immediate value of this was that she could attack Austria-Hungary in the west while Russia attacked her in the east.

Q.—Why was Turkey considered so important?

A.—Mostly because she held the Dardanelles. These narrow straits, heavily fortified, were not only vital to a military junction between Russia's forces and the other Allies, but they were the door to a tremendous attack on the eastern front of the Central Powers. So long as that door was kept closed, Russia had to fight alone on the eastern front. Furthermore, she could neither ship her grain nor procure supplies from outside. The grain was not only badly needed, but would have provided credits in the outer world for Russia. Thus the possession of the Dardanelles was vastly important economically as well as from the military viewpoint. As to the latter, there is no doubt that the opening of the Dardanelles would have meant the definite invasion of Austria-Hungary.

Q.—Would not Turkish neutrality have served the Germans by keeping the Dardanelles closed?

A.—It would. But continued neutrality would probably have been impossible for

the Turks. Sooner or later they would have been forced into the war. Therefore the German policy was to get her aid as an ally without taking a chance.

Q.—Were the Dardanelles the great early strategic prize?

A.—There were two waterways whose absolute and undisturbed control was absolutely vital for immediate war-purposes. They were the British Channel and the Dardanelles.

Q.—Could the Germans hope to contest control of the channel against the British fleet?

A.—They could. They could not hope to contest it with their battleships, but they could hope to do so by capturing the entire Belgian coast and the French coast at least as far as Calais. Had they succeeded, they might have made transportation of troops and supplies to France from England exceedingly difficult by using heavy artillery from coast fortifications, by greatly expanding their submarine bases and having them close to the British transport lines, and by making serious threats by land against Havre, the port at the mouth of the Seine.

Q.—What were the other important points in the beginning?

A.—The control of the North Sea and the Baltic Sea, the Kiel Canal, and the Austrian naval bases of Trieste and Pola on the Adriatic.

Q.—Did either belligerent gain a decisive advantage in these?

A.—The British gained an almost decisive preponderance of control in the North Sea. The Germans succeeded in holding the Baltic almost at their will. The Kiel Canal and the Austrian naval bases proved practically invulnerable.

Q.—Just what was the value to Germany of the Kiel Canal?

A.—It meant that while the British might control the North Sea, they could not completely rob the German Navy of freedom of movement. The best way to understand its value is to understand that the German North Sea coast and the German Baltic coast are separated from each other by a mighty tongue of land that projects northward until it almost touches Sweden. This is the projection on which Denmark is. Thus the natural geography made it very difficult for naval ships to pass between the Baltic and the North Sea. Enemy ships might easily have cut them off in the narrow passage between Denmark and Sweden (the Cattegat) or between Denmark and Norway (the Skager Rack). Or, part of the German fleet might be blockaded in a North Sea port (the mouth of the Weser or the Elbe) and another part might be blocked within the Baltic, and thus the two fleets rendered permanently too weak for action.

Q.—How did the Kiel Canal solve this problem?

A.—The Kiel Canal cuts straight across the base of the great projection of land. In effect, it has straightened out the coast line for naval purposes, and made one coast of the North Sea and the Baltic coasts.

Q.—What makes the Kiel Canal apparently invulnerable?

A.—Immense fortifications on land, commanding all approaches. Difficult coast lines, forcing exceedingly cautious, and therefore slow, maneuvering by enemy ships. Also the outlying island of Heligoland, which is actually one enormous fortification, armed with every offensive and defensive device of modern warfare, and lying broad in the way of ships that seek to approach the North Sea mouth of the Kiel Canal.

Q.—When did Germany acquire Heligoland?

A.—In 1890, under the Caprivi agreement, Lord Salisbury traded Heligoland to Germany in return for Zanzibar. There was, of course, at that time no thought of Germany's sea rivalry, and the island of Heligoland seemed of little importance to England. It was a mistake, however, as the Germans built up the hollow coast, turning the island into a strong naval fort and making it a front and screen for the German fleet, from behind which they can assemble and make surprise attacks in the North Sea.

Q.—Did Heligoland prove impregnable?

A.—It had been apparently impregnable up to August, 1918, when there had been more than 1,400 days of war. Naval men, however, knew so well that Heligoland's fall would prove decisive that every mind was centered on devising a method for attack.

Q.—Why cannot a landing be effected in Germany between Holland and Denmark?

A.—Heligoland defends the Bight. The sea is shallow there, and the channels are difficult. The Frisian Islands are strongly fortified, and all approaches are protected with the latest appliances for harbor protection, sunken torpedoes and other defenses. For transports to enter that region would be to invite destruction.

Q.—What were the political war aims in 1914?

A.—Allied efforts to bring Turkey, the Balkan States and Italy into the war. Unsuccessful. German attempts to gain Turkey as an ally. Successful.

Q.—What were the great military events of 1914?

A.—The Battle of the Marne which stopped the German advance on Paris. The Battle of East Prussia which defeated Russian invasion of Germany.

Q.—What were the great military objectives in 1915?

A.—In the West, German attempt to establish a general defensive. Successful.

In the East, Russian attempt to invade Hungary. Unsuccessful. German attempt to occupy Russian Poland. Successful. Austro-German and Bulgarian attempt to conquer Serbia. Successful. French and British attempt to take Dardanelles. Unsuccessful.

Q.—What were the political aims in 1915?

A.—German attempt to bring Bulgaria in as an ally. Successful. Allied attempts to bring Roumania and Greece in on their side. Unsuccessful. Allied effort to win Italy. Successful.

Q.—What were the vital military objectives in 1916?

A.—In the West, German attempts to resume the offensive (Verdun). Unsuccessful.

In the East, Russian attempt to overrun Bukowina. Successful. German and Austrian attempt to conquer Roumania. Successful. British attempt to capture Bagdad. Unsuccessful.

In the South, Austrian attempt to invade Italy through Trentino. Partly successful. Italian attempt to break Isonzo line. Partly successful.

Q.—What were the political aims of 1916?

A.—Allied attempt to win Roumania to their side. Successful. German attempt to induce enemies to meet in peace conference. Unsuccessful.

Q.—What were the big military objectives in 1917?

A.—In the West, the French and British attempt to force a decisive retirement of Germans. Unsuccessful.

In the East, German drive along Russian Baltic coast to Riga and beyond. Successful. British attempt to capture Bagdad (with new army). Successful. British attempt to conquer Palestine. Successful.

In the South, German and Austro-Hungarian attempt to break Izonzo line and invade northern Italy. Successful.

Q.—What were the political aims of 1917?

A.—To keep the revolutionary government of Russia in line with Allied military and political aims. Unsuccessful. To bring Greece into the war on the side of the Allies. Successful.

Q.—How do retreating armies destroy stores of grain?

A.—Great stocks of wheat can of course be fired, but they burn very slowly indeed. Petroleum assists the fire, but it fails to get far into the stacks. Blowing up the grain does not get rid of it, and there is seldom time for a retreating army to stop and load the wheat on to trucks, even if these were available to take it away. It is difficult to ruin it with water, because the water does not penetrate far enough. When the Austrians abandoned Lemberg to the Russians early in the war, they attempted to destroy the huge stores of wheat they had in the city, but the Russians found the wheat practically undamaged, although the sheltering roofs and wooden walls of granaries, etc., had been entirely burned away.

Q.—What were the largest battles in the Roumanian campaign?

A.—The most momentous was fought at Targujiu on November 15 and 18, 1915, when the invading Teutons broke the Roumanian resistance in Western Wallachia. The other decisive battle was fought just a few miles west of Bucharest on December 1, 2 and 3.

Q.—What is approximately the total area of conquered land held by the enemy?

A.—Owing to the British and French successes, the area held in France was a constantly decreasing quantity during 1917. Still the Germans appeared in the beginning of 1918 to be in occupation of at least 179,400 square miles of Allied territory:

Belgium	11,000	square miles
Poland	49,000	"
Courland	10,400	"
Kovno	15,500	"
Grodno	14,900	"
Vilna	8,000	"
Volhynia and Minsk	8,000	"
Northern Albania ..	6,000	"
Montenegro	5,600	"
Wallachia and Dobrudja	43,000	"
Northern France ..	8,000	"

The Allies held a small portion of Alsace, and a narrow strip of Austrian territory on the Izonso, not equal to the area that the Germans had in Montenegro and Albania. Outside of Europe, however, the Allies had acquired all the German colonies.

Q.—Did the Central Powers increase their acquisition of occupied territory in 1918?

A.—Up to the middle of July, 1918, they had succeeded in enlarging their military occupation by making a succession of powerful drives on wide fronts in Flanders, Picardy and the Champagne in France. The greatest gain was in Picardy, where they won more than 1,000 square miles by their attack from the line Arras-La Fere. In three areas—Picardy on the front just named: Flanders, (La Bassee to Armentieres and the famous Ypres salient), and in the Champagne district from the Aisne to the Marne, they thus established huge territorial salients whose extreme fronts brought German armies almost to the farthest line that had been reached in the first headlong rush toward Paris in 1914.

Q.—When did the Germans begin to lose territory?

A.—On July 15, 1918, when after a sudden but brief German offensive, French, American and British troops attacked heavily all along the lines, first: south of Rheims, driving advanced German forces northward across the Marne, then along the lines Soissons-Chateau-Thierry, taking both, and forcing the Germans back into the Aisne district; second, along the Montdidier-Albert line, driving the enemy back there along that whole part of the front. These battles (or this battle) covered astonishing periods of time, for after more than 2 months of almost uninterrupted fighting they were still continuing.

Q.—What is the greatest mine explosion in history?

A.—At the battle of Messines Ridge, on July 7, 1917, the British exploded simultaneously nineteen mines, containing something like five hundred tons of high explosive, under the German position. The British engineers had been driving tunnels beneath the hills held by the opposing forces for an entire year. There was an unprecedentedly intense preliminary bombardment in which a single British division fired 226,000 shells, the cannonade being heard in English towns 130 miles away. The mine was touched at 3:10 A. M. Practically the entire range was thrown into the air as by a volcano, the heavy concrete emplacements and deep dug-outs of the Germans spouting up in small fragments. Some of the enemy troops survived the horror, but were so dazed that the British charge took the entire ridge with but little resistance.

Q.—Did the term "Allies" include all the nations that entered the war against the Central Powers?

A.—Technically, the only "Allies" were France, Russia and Great Britain, who signed the pact of London, September 5, 1917, binding themselves not to make separate peace.

Q.—Did not other nations join as Allies?

A.—Japan, although entering the war against Germany as a treaty-ally of Great

Britain as soon as it began, signed the separate peace pact some time later. Italy signed the pact when she entered the war. Since then most of the smaller nations that entered the war from time to time became signatories to the peace pact, and they have all been known as Allies.

Q.—How long are Germany's land frontiers?

A.—The Russian frontier is 843 miles. The French frontier is 242 miles. The Swiss frontier is 256 miles, and the Holland frontier is 377 miles.

Q.—Are the frontiers all guarded by forts?

A.—Yes. The fortress system on the French frontier is based on Metz, and the Cologne-Koblenz system north of it. The Alsace-Lorraine front is guarded by the Strassburg-New Breisach system.

Q.—Is Berlin guarded by forts?

A.—The Berlin system of fortifications is Spandau, Magdeburg, Torgau, Kustrin. They form a protective zone about sixty miles outside of and around Berlin.

Q.—What are the distances in the European battleground?

A.—The comparative scale of the areas involved is shown by the following distances:

	Miles.
Dover-Brussels	140
Brussels-Cologne	115
Paris-Belgian Frontier	115
Paris-German Frontier	170
Dover-Calais	21
London-Wilhelmshaven	400
Strassburg-French Frontier	30
Berlin-Warsaw	330
Berlin-Constantinople	1,699
Paris-Lille	130
Calais-Lille	55
Berlin-Petrograd	1,150
Berlin-Paris	550
Berlin-Munich	315
Munich-Paris	430
Munich-Petrograd	1,300
Munich-Venice	190
Munich-Vienna	230
Vienna-Belgrade	210
Venice-Austrian Frontier	45
Galatz-Odessa	140
Riga-Petrograd	300

FOREIGN NAVIES

Q.—Who spent the most on navies before the war?

A.—Great Britain spent about $245,000,000 on her naval establishment in 1913-1914. Russia was second with about $130,000,000. Third place was held by France with $125,000,000. Germany came fourth with $115,000,000, and Austria spent $37,500,000. Thus the comparative pre-war expenditures of the big opposing forces were: Allies $500,000,000 (about), Central Powers $152,500,000 (about).

Q.—What are "Hush Hush" ships?

A.—They are a new type of very heavily armed and armored British ships, built in a novel way, very long and very low, with a squat central superstructure flanked by turrets or barbettes that hold two extremely powerful guns. The speed is said to be as high as that of battle-cruisers, and it is reported that the guns throw a 1,900-pound shell. While the only information about them has come through chance references, experts assume that they are outgrowths of the modern battle-cruiser principle.

Q.—What were the German naval losses during the whole war?

A.—The list given in the *Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute*, January, 1918, is: 1 battleship, 1 battle-cruiser, 6 armored cruisers, 11 protected cruisers, 9 light cruisers, 11 gunboats, 36 destroyers and torpedo-boats, 24 auxiliary cruisers, 6 small vessels (mine layers, etc.), or 105 vessels in all, not counting submarines. The list gives 55 submarines, the destruction of most of which appears definitely established, and it is undoubted that more have been destroyed.

Q.—How many Allied warships does Germany claim to have sunk?

A.—With the sinking of the French armored cruiser *Chateaurenault* Germany claimed that 300 different warships, with a total tonnage of 1,000,000 tons, belonging to the Entente Allies have been lost since the beginning of the war. Auxiliary cruisers to the number of 51, with a tonnage of 358,000, and other ships commandeered for war purposes numbering 38, with a registered tonnage of 146,000, which have been sunk, are not included in the above total.

The losses of the 300 warships are divided as follows, according to the German figures:

	Ships.	Tons.
England	177	688,390
France	48	109,000
Russia	36	91,540
Italy	25	76,450
Japan	8	26,875
United States, Portugal, Roumania	6	8,551

Thus the warship losses of the Entente would about equal the size of the German fleet at the beginning of the war, which was 1,019,417 tons.

Q.—What was the total loss of British warships?

	1914-1915.	1916.	1917.	Total
Gunfire	3	16	4	23
Submarined	12	3	10	25
Topedoed by surface ships	1	1	2	4
Mined	6	5	9	20
Collision	..	4	4	8
Internal Explo....	3	..	1	4
Foundered and stranded	5	..	..	5
Total	30	29	30	89

Add 3 destroyers, the actual cause of whose loss—either mine or submarine—is uncertain. This estimate is made by one writer on naval topics.

A list printed in the *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* for January, 1918, gives as the British naval losses: 2 dreadnaughts, 12 battleships, 13 armored cruisers, 10 light cruisers, 44 destroyers and torpedo-boats, 15 auxiliary cruisers, 8 transports, and about 20 small vessels (coast guard, etc.), making 124 in all, with 14 submarines in addition.

Q.—What naval strength have the neutrals?

A.—Switzerland, of course, has no ships. Holland proposed recently to build nine dreadnaughts, but she had only nine coast defense battleships in 1917, some cruisers, and forty torpedo-boats; also six submarines, mostly old. Norway, likewise, intended to build eight great

battleships, but relied actually on a few gunboats and 37 torpedo-boats. Sweden had a dozen coast defense vessels, 53 torpedo destroyers, and three submarines, but during the war added a swift cruiser of 7,000 tons to her fleet. The Spanish navy consisted of three small dreadnaughts of 15,400 tons, and half a dozen old cruisers, but an ambitious building program was begun after the war started.

Q.—Is there great difference between British battle cruisers and armored cruisers?

A.—Yes, in size and speed, but especially in gun power. The latest of the British armored cruisers, the *Defence,* was 14,600 tons, had a speed of 23 knots, and mounted four 9.2-inch and ten 7.5-inch guns. The German *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau* were of this type, but smaller, 11,400 tons, and eight 8.2-inch guns. The *Australia,* one of the smaller battle-cruisers, displaced 18,800 tons, and had a designed speed of 25 knots, which has been considerably exceeded. She carried eight 12-inch guns, and much heavier armor than the *Defence.*

Q.—Is the British super-dreadnaught much heavier than dreadnaughts?

A.—Yes, very much so. The difference between the two types is in fact greater than between the most recent pre-dreadnaughts and a dreadnaught. The first all-big-gun ship was the British *Dreadnought,* which has given the name to this class of battleship. Admiral Fisher was responsible for her, and the experience of the Russo-Japanese war was the direct cause of her building. The naval battles in that war proved that a heavily armored ship, with big guns, was the ship of the future. The heavily protected Russian *Czarevitch* survived the smashing gunfire of the Japanese fleet, and was the only Russian ship to escape, those less well armored being sunk. The *Dreadnought* was 17,000 tons, was engined with turbines of 23,000 horsepower, which developed a speed of 21 knots; she had ten 12-inch guns. The *Lord Nelson,* the last of the pre-dreadnaughts, was 16,500 tons, 18 knots, had thinner armor, and only four 12-inch guns, but carried also ten 9.2-inchers. The difference between the two was not very great.

The British call this type "dreadnought." The American custom is "dreadnaught."

Q.—Why have British warships not operated in the Baltic?

A.—Because the entrance to the Baltic is a "bottle-neck" passage. The British fleet would have to force this very narrow entrance between Denmark and Sweden at immense risk, for the narrowest part of this strait (the Cattegat) is so tight that it is only a ferry-trip from Copenhagen in Denmark to Swedish Elsinore or Malmo.

Since it would be quite impossible for the British fleet to advance through such a waterway in battle-formation, the German fleet in the Baltic could practically select its own way of defense and attack.

Q.—Is this all that keeps British ships out?

A.—Furthermore, the German ships could pour out of the Kiel Canal into the North Sea, steam northward and close the Cattegat from outside after the British fleet had entered, thus locking it up. This would mean that a foray into the Baltic might, even if successful against German forces in the Baltic, end in the total loss of the British ships.

Apart from these two decisive factors, a major naval operation in the Baltic is practically prohibited by the shoal nature of that sea and its extremely intricate and dangerous channels. Fighting at the terrific speed of a modern naval engagement, the dreadnaughts would almost inevitably run aground sooner or later.

Q.—How large a fleet had the Russians in the Baltic?

A.—Before the war began the Russian fleet in the Baltic consisted of four dreadnaughts, which had just been completed. They were all 23,000 tons, and carried 12-inch guns. There were in addition four pre-dreadnaught battleships. The oldest of these, the *Czarevitch,* was the largest ship the Russians possessed when they fought Japan in 1903. There were also six armored cruisers, one of which, the *Pallada,* was sunk.

Q.—Which ships did Japan give back to Russia?

A.—The ships "retroceded" to Russia were the battleships *Sagami* (ex-*Peresviet*) and *Tango* (ex-*Poltava*), and the cruiser *Soya* (ex-*Varyag*). These were all captured in the war of 1904-5.

Q.—Has Greece any fleet?

A.—During the Balkan wars the Greek fleet dominated the Ægean, owing to the

fact that in the *Georgios Averoff* the Greeks had a more powerful ship than anything Turkey possessed. This armored cruiser, of 9,680 tons, was the gift of the Grecian millionaire Averoff to the nation. Had this gift not been made the Balkan war might have taken a somewhat different course.

Q.—Has Greece any American battleships?

A.—Since that war the Greeks purchased the two 13,000-ton battleships, *Idaho* and *Mississippi*, from the United States, rechristening them *Kilkis* and *Lemnos*. They are only 17 knots, but both carry four 12-inch guns. They also ordered a battle-cruiser of 20,000 tons, the *Salamis*, from Germany, as a reply to Turkey's order for two dreadnaughts placed in Great Britain. The *Salamis* was acquired by Germany, and probably took part in the Jutland battle under another name.

Q.—What are the largest British naval guns?

A.—The 15-inch guns of the *Queen Elisabeth* and her sister ships were the largest known to be in use. Larger weapons have, however, been made, and may perhaps be mounted on some of the latest dreadnaughts. One 16-inch gun made at Elswick on the Tyne, weighs 105 tons, and fires a shell weighing 2,200 pounds, almost exactly a ton. The Krupp 16-inch gun weighs only 92 tons, and fires a 2,028-pound shell. Schneider, the French maker, has a 15.7-inch weapon, which weighs 102 tons, and has a projectile of 2,183 pounds.

Q.—How much does a British 15-inch gun weigh?

A.—From 90 to 95 tons. To quote Mr. Winston Churchill: "These guns have proved the best we have ever had. Accurate at all ranges, and exceptionally long lived." No fewer than 14 of the new British super-dreadnaughts are armed with this weapon. Its extreme range is 21 miles, but, owing to the curvature of the earth's surface, its effective range would be at the most half that. Even then the gunner would not see the ship he was firing at, which would be below the horizon. The gun would have to be laid by the direction from the lookout high up the mast!

Q.—Could the Germans convert existing 12-inch gun ships to 16-inch?

A.—It would be possible, but exceedingly difficult and complicated. At best it would be a patchwork affair. It would hardly be possible to mount two 15-inch guns where two 12-inch guns had been, and if only one of the larger types were placed where two of the smaller had been, the gain would not be enough. The entire mounting, magazine hoists, etc., would have to be altered—renewed, in fact.

Q.—Is the "Queen Elizabeth" a superdreadnaught or a battle cruiser?

A.—She is a superdreadnaught, but immensely bigger than the old *Dreadnought*. She and her sister ships, the *Warspite*, *Valiant* and *Barham*, displace 29,000 tons. Her oil-driven turbine engines develop 45,000 horsepower, and give her a speed of 22.5 knots. She has ten 15-inch guns. The *Tiger*, the largest British battle-cruiser before the war, is larger, 30,000 tons; her engines of 110,000 horsepower give her the immense speed of 31 knots, and she carries eight 13.5-inch guns.

Q.—Can naval guns be dismounted and used in the field?

A.—It is possible to use guns of comparatively small caliber in this way, as was done by the British during the Boer war. Some time ago it was stated definitely that the Germans were using some of their 11-inch naval guns among the dunes of Flanders, and had bombarded Dunkirk therewith. It is far more likely, however, that they used army siege guns. It was decided in March, 1918, to use some of our big naval guns on the French front, if necessary, presumably because the United States naval gun works had superior facilities for turning out the very large guns such as 16-inch.

Q.—How many rounds can a great naval gun fire before wearing out?

A.—Twelve-inch guns, and those of still larger size, can fire 90 full charges only. After that they are sent to the foundry, where they have a new core inserted, and can fire a further 90 rounds. By the time a gun had fired 180 rounds it used to be considered practically obsolete, but the war has vastly changed conditions and the reclaiming of great guns has advanced immensely.

In time of peace the big guns were naturally spared carefully and only a few full charges were fired in the course of a year. For practice, reduced charges were used, or a small-caliber gun attached to the big gun was fired.

Q.—What weight projectile do big guns fire?

A.—Twelve-inch guns fire projectiles weighing about 850 pounds; 15-inch guns up to 2,000 pounds.

A rough-and-ready rule for calculation is: Cube the caliber of the gun and divide the result by two. This rule would give you for a 12-inch gun: 1728 divided by 2 equals 864 (pounds).

Q.—Is it costly to fire these huge guns?

A.—The *Iron Duke* has ten 13.5-inch guns, and 16 6-inch guns. With all the guns in action she uses up powder and shot to the value of $50,000 a minute. The weight of her broadside is 14,000 pounds, or more than six tons.

Q.—What is the penetrating power of a twelve-inch gun?

A.—It will send a projectile through three feet of wrought iron at 5,000 yards. The latest 15-inch gun will perforate 42.5 inches of steel at its muzzle.

Q.—Was a German admiral in command of the Turkish fleet?

A.—The Turkish fleet, such as it is, was under the command of Admiral Souchon, who, despite his name, is a German.

Q.—What additions were made to the foreign fleets during the war?

A.—Particulars of the ship-building in Great Britain naturally were not published, but when war was declared there were several super-dreadnaughts of the *Queen Elizabeth* type building, a large number of light cruisers and many destroyers and submarines. In addition there were the Turkish and Chilean dreadnaughts which were taken over.

Among the French dreadnaughts were the six *Dantons*, assumed to be the equals of the dreadnaughts proper France then had in commission. The *Danton*, which gave its name to this class, was sunk on March 19, 1917, by a submarine. If the French ship-building program was adhered to, France in 1917 should have had nine super-dreadnaughts in addition to those in this list.

Particulars of the German ships built since the war began are not available.

Four Russian dreadnaughts were practically ready when the war broke out, and three others were building on the Black Sea. One of these has been reported sunk. Presumably the other two are in commission there.

If the Italian ship-building program was carried out, there should have been six more super-dreadnaughts in commission in 1917. One of the dreadnaughts in the list, the *Leonardo da Vinci*, was blown up.

Q.—What ships building for foreign powers did Great Britain take over?

A.—The dreadnaught originally ordered by Brazil, purchased from her by Turkey, which was just leaving for Constantinople. She has been re-christened *Agincourt*. The *Reshadieh*, another dreadnaught just completed for Turkey by Messrs. Vickers Ltd. Two large destroyers just ready for delivery to Chile, vessels with a displacement of 1,850 tons, and a speed of over 31 knots; also three monitors building for Brazil, each mounting two 6-inch and four 4.7-inch guns.

Q.—Were the Turks willing to allow their two battleships to be taken over?

A.—They objected strongly and, according to the British ambassador to Constantinople, the seizure was partly responsible for the Turkish entry into the struggle against the Allies. He strongly recommended that the British Government pay the Turks for the vessels, but the British Foreign Secretary objected on the ground that it was unwise to pay money to an obviously hostile State, and thus help to provide her with means.

Q.—Are the acquired Turkish ships powerful?

A.—The *Agincourt* is 27,000 tons and 22 knots. She has 14 12-inch guns. Originally ordered by Brazil, she was christened *Rio de Janeiro*. Turkey purchased her, on the stocks, and renamed her *Sultan Osman*. She and the *Reshadieh*, now called the *Erin*, were quite completed, and were running their speed trials when Germany declared war on Russia. It is said that Mr. Churchill purchased them on his own responsibility, and had a bad

time in Cabinet in consequence. Had he not done so at once, however, they would have left British waters, and would now be fighting for the Central Powers in the East. The *Erin* has 10 13.5-inch guns, and is 23,000 tons displacement.

Q.—What battleships were building in Europe for foreign powers?

A.—Two huge Chilean dreadnaughts were building at Newcastle; also a protected cruiser for Siam, and destroyers for Brazil and Chile. Germany was building several submarines for the smaller Powers, and also a few destroyers. In addition the Greek battle-cruiser *Salamis* was nearing completion in her yards.

Q.—Were these the only ships which Great Britain took over?

A.—No. In addition there were six Chilean destroyers, each of about 1,800 tons and 31 knots. Two of these have already joined the fleet. They are said to have been superior to anything of this type in the navy at that time, with the single exception of the *Swift* (2,170 tons). The Admiralty also took over three monitors building for Brazil, which have done excellent service off the coast of Belgium and elsewhere.

Q.—How was it possible for Great Britain to obtain warships from neutrals?

A.—Ships building in British shipyards are liable to purchase by the Admiralty, there being a provision in the agreement to that effect. Article 6 of the Neutrality in Naval War Convention states definitely that "the supply on any ground whatever, either directly or indirectly, by a neutral power to a belligerent power of ships of war or munitions of war of any kind is forbidden."

Q.—How many warships has Chile, and which are the largest?

A.—For a long time Chile rested satisfied with the two armored cruisers, *Almirante O'Higgins* (8,500 tons), and the *Esmeralda* (7,020 tons), completed for her in Great Britain in 1898 and 1897 respectively. Just before the war, however, she had ordered two great dreadnaughts of 28,000 tons in England. These were nearing completion when the war began, and were taken over by the British Admiralty. The only other large ship Chile possesses is the 24-year-old battleship *Capitan Prat* (7,000 tons).

Q.—What is the relative rank of the officers in the British navy and army?

A.—Admirals of the Fleet rank with Field-Marshals; Admirals with Generals; Vice-Admirals with Lieut.-Generals; Rear-Admirals with Major-Generals; Commodores with Brigadier-Generals; Captains with Colonels; Commanders with Lieut.-Colonels; Lieutenants (eight years) with Majors; Lieutenants (under eight years) with Captains; Sub-Lieutenants with Lieutenants; Chief Gunners with Second Lieutenants. The Navy is the senior service, and always takes precedence of the Army.

Q.—How many Australian-born men are there in the Australian and New Zealand navies?

A.—There is no New Zealand navy. New Zealand paid for the *New Zealand* battle-cruiser, but she is manned by a Royal Navy crew. There may be a small sprinkling of men aboard her born in New Zealand, but they would not amount to more than 2 or 3 per cent.

Q.—Are most of the officers in the Australian Navy English?

A.—Most of the officers are assigned from the Royal Navy. Nearly all of the executive officers belong to or have retired from the Royal Navy; a few have been entered into the Royal Australian Navy from the British merchant service. All the senior ranks of engineer officers are lent from the Royal Navy, but there are about fifteen Australian officers now serving who have been entered from the Australian Universities, and are holding responsible positions. All the surgeons, except the director of medical service, were obtained in Australia. Practically all the warrant officers belong to the Royal Navy, or served in the Royal Navy prior to joining the Royal Australian Navy permanently. As a general rule, petty officers and men with over four years' naval service are from the Royal Navy. All men with less than four years' service were obtained in Australia, but about 25 per cent of these were born in England, having originally come out as emigrants or as firemen, stewards, etc., on merchant vessels.

Q.—What is the present strength of the British navy?

A.—On the fourth anniversary of Great Britain's entry into the war (August 4, 1918) the Secretary of the Admiralty announced that the British navy possessed on that date warships and auxiliary craft whose total displacement reached 6,500,000 tons, against 2,500,000 tons in August, 1914 During that period about three-quarters of a million tons had been lost, but the growth of the fleet showed an increase of 160 per cent by August 4, 1918. Similarly, with the personnel, the original 146,000 officers and men had grown to 394,000.

Q.—Are submarines being sunk extensively now?

A.—Sir Eric Geddes, First Lord of the Admiralty, said in the House of Commons on March 5, 1918, that the British and American naval forces in the North Sea, the North Atlantic, and the English Channel were sinking submarines as fast as they were built, and on July 30, he made the announcement that during the last three months of the first half of 1918 the world's output of tonnage exceeded the world's losses from all causes by no less than 100,000 tons per month.

Q.—What has been proved the best means of protection?

A.—"As to the means of defense against submarines, figures are now available which show that the convoy system has played a large part in overcoming the submarine menace to the ocean communications of the Allies. Whereas in the period from April to June of last year, before the convoy system was established, British steamers sailing to and from the United Kingdom in the main overseas trades suffered losses through enemy action of 5.41 per cent of their total number, the figures since then have steadily diminished, until in the period from March to June of this year, during which 93.8 per cent of the ships were convoyed, the losses had dropped to 1.23 per cent of the total number of sailings in these trades."—Statement published in August, 1918.

Q.—Were all the losses in unconvoyed ships?

A.—Not all, but largely. Only 0.61 per cent of convoyed tonnage was lost. Of 61,691,000 tons convoyed since the introduction of the system, only 373,000 tons had been lost.

Q.—What is a gun-layer?

A.—This is the British naval term for the sailor in a gun-crew who "lays" the gun—that is, points it when it is ready to fire. In the American Navy he is called "gun-pointer" and the position is one that is eagerly competed for and much envied.

Q.—What is the difference between a raider and an auxiliary merchantman?

A.—"Raider" is merely the descriptive word for a ship which preys on hostile commerce. It may be any kind of a vessel, a warship or an armed merchantman, which latter is usually called an auxiliary cruiser.

Q.—Could warships be protected with concrete?

A.—Some naval engineers have proposed systems for using concrete instead of armor. The essential idea is to use several layers of concrete between steel armor-plates. The concrete would have to be from 3 to 4 feet thick, and for such places as turrets there would be almost equal thickness of concrete and armor combined. The idea has not gone beyond theory.

SOLDIERS OF THE ALLIES

Q.—What was Great Britain's strength when war began?

A.—The entire military strength was about 250,000 in the regular army, 200,000 reserves (men who had served in the regular army and had returned to civil life) and a little over 250,000 of the partially trained militia known as "territorials." This is counting the regular British army in India, but excluding the native Indian army, etc.

Q.—How were these British forces distributed in normal times?

A.—127,400 in the United Kingdom; 77,300 in India; 12,500 in Ceylon and China; 11,850 in South Africa; 6,500 in Egypt and Cyprus; 7,500 in Malta; 4,120 in Gibraltar; and 6,600 variously scattered in stations and Crown Colonies.

Q.—What troops had Great Britain in India?

A.—Besides the British regiments, 77,300 strong, there were 162,000 native troops, 28,500 military police, 96,400 volunteers, reserves, etc.

Q.—What is the present enrollment in the British armies?

A.—In March, 1918 the total enrollment in the British Armies was 7,500,000 men. To this total England contributed 4,530,000; Scotland 620,000; Wales 280,000; Ireland 170,000; the dominions and colonies 900,000. The remaining 1,000,000, composed of native fighting troops, labor corps, carriers, etc., were from India, Africa and other dependencies.

Q.—How many soldiers were raised in Canada?

A.—Up to June 1, 1918, Canada had enlisted 550,000 men, of whom all but 70,000 were volunteers. As many thousands had enlisted in the British army, it is estimated that Canada's total contribution has been about 600,000, or about 8 per cent of the total population. Canada, with a population of 7½ millions, maintains 4 divisions of about 80,000 men in France.

Q.—What was the size of the first expeditionary force?

A.—The first British expeditionary force was 160,000. It arrived in France in mid-August and was on the line during the Battle of the Marne.

Q.—Who spent the most money on armies before the war?

A.—Germany spent about $340,000,000 on her army organization in 1913-1914. Russia came second with about $330,000,000. France followed with $240,000,000, and Great Britain came next with $140,000,000. Austria was behind them all, spending "only" $120,000,000. Thus the comparative expenditures of the big opposing forces were: Allies $710,000,000 (about), Central Powers $460,000,000 (about).

Q.—What are the military forces of the neutral countries?

A.—Switzerland has no permanent army to speak of. Her citizen soldiers number about 200,000. Particulars given as to the strength of the military forces vary considerably. The following is approximately correct:—

	Peace establishment.	War strength.
Spain	128,000	300,000
Holland	22,000	200,000
Denmark	14,000	83,000
Sweden	84,000	200,000
Norway	18,000	70,000

Q.—What were the Territorials?

A.—The "Terriers," as they were called, took the place in England of the old volunteers. Members of this force had to enlist for three years, and during that time were liable to be called upon for active service at home. Like our State militia, they could only be sent abroad if they volunteered. This they did almost in a body, and they were the first troops after the regulars to reach France.

Q.—How many "Terriers" were there?

A.—In April, 1913, there were 263,000. That is 50,000 less than the figures com-

puted for the entire "establishment." Recruiting was, however, brisk during 1913, and this deficiency was considerably reduced.

Q.—What was Great Britain's total effective force at the outbreak of war?

A.—596,000, made up as follows: Regiments in the United Kingdom, 127,400; Army reserves, 142,000; special reserves, 61,000; territorials, 263,000; and 3,000 more or less unattached. If, however, the British troops in India and oversea be included, and also the Indian Army, Great Britain had a total strength of just under a million men, and those were standing troops ready for instant service.

Q.—Are the Zouaves Frenchmen or colored troops?

A.—The Zouaves are the professional soldiers of France, and are basically Frenchmen. They were originally stationed in Northern Africa, hence the semi-Moorish uniform. They are long service men, and are not conscripted, but are much like the men who enlist in our regular army. As in our regular army, there may be (and are) Zouave regiments made of colored troops; but the Zouave organization is French, not foreign.

Q.—Has Portugal taken active part in the war?

A.—Yes. She has sent two full divisions to France since January 1, 1917, and a third division is being trained. In less than a year Portugal has furnished 75,000 soldiers, and has 100,000 more in reserve, trained. Her divisions are joined to the British forces.

Q.—What wages do the soldiers of the belligerents receive per day?

A.—Great Britain gives 1s. 2d. (29 cents); Germany, 5 cents; France, 3 cents; Canada, $1.12; New Zealand, $1.25; and Australia, $1.50. The rate of pay in the Austrian Army is about the same as in the German.

Q.—How would the daily army pay-bills of the nations compare?

A.—That of Great Britain probably would be about six times that of Germany, while Australia appears to be paying every day in wages twice as great a sum as that paid by the Kaiser to his millions of soldiers. The total under arms can, of course, only be estimated, as accurate particulars are not available. The daily wage bill probably is about as follows:

Germany, with, say, 5,000,000 in arms	$ 250,000
France, with, say, 3,500,000 in arms	105,000
Great Britain, with, say, 5,000,000 in arms	1,450,000
Australia, with, say, 300,000 in arms	450,000

Q.—How are the ranks named in the Indian army?

A.—Subadar, Captain; Jemadar, Lieutenant; Havildar, Sergeant; Naik, Corporal; Sepoy, Private of infantry; Sowar, Trooper of cavalry; Duffadar, Sergeant of cavalry.

Q.—Were all the soldiers sent from Australia Australian born?

A.—Some 75 per cent, it is believed, were born there, and 25 per cent were born outside of Australia, the great majority in Britain.

Q.—Were the Irish first to land on Gallipoli?

A.—They were the first to get ashore (on April 25, 1915), though parties of naval men had landed before for brief periods. The famous *River Clyde* had about 2,300 Irishmen on board, the Dublins and the Munsters, and two companies of the Hampshire regiment, who were brigaded with them. Some Dublins also landed in open boats. The Turkish positions had been shelled for hours by the British fleet, and the enemy had given no reply whatever. The moment the Irishmen approached the shore, however, rifles and machine guns and pom-poms opened fire, and they were practically wiped out. Of the thousand men who left the *River Clyde* in the morning, 700 were killed, drowned or wounded. However, a landing was forced in the end. A Scottish officer who saw the amazing landing over submerged wire entanglements in face of the terrific fire said: "It is but the merest truth to state that there would be no Dardanelles campaign heard of to-day if it had not been for the extraordinary services of these Irish troops, white men every one."

Q.—How many British were at the battle of Mons?

A.—Sir John French had two army corps with him, roughly 75,000 men with 250 guns. During that fight and in the retreat to the Marne, some 17,000 men were taken prisoners, and the losses in killed and wounded were severe. When the offensive began at the Marne, French had been reinforced by a third army corps, but he probably had only 100,000 men under his command altogether.

Q.—Who was in command of the Polish Legion in the enemy's forces?

A.—Neutral papers have stated that the commander in 1916 was Field-Marshal Lieutenant von Durski, himself a Pole, who, after the campaign which drove the Russians entirely out of Poland, united the three brigades of the Polish Legions into one command. These brigades had been fighting in different districts previously. One brigade composed of Austrian Poles had been fighting continuously in Galicia. Another, consisting of men who had been dwelling in Poland proper, was engaged before Warsaw, and the third, consisting of German Poles, was operating farther north. The Polish Legions appear to have distinguished themselves greatly in the field.

Q.—What became of the Indian troops who were in France in 1915?

A.—They were withdrawn from the west front and sent to Egypt. From there some were sent to Mesopotamia, a few returned to India, and a few appear to have gone to German East Africa.

Q.—How many men were with General Smuts?

A.—According to General Botha, who gave the information to the House of Assembly in Capetown, 20,000 men were sent from South Africa to fight in German East Africa. Troops also went from India and a few from England. As the campaign progressed, however, many of the white fighters were withdrawn, and in the end the army consisted heavily of colored soldiers, the majority being African natives.

Q.—How large was the German army in East Africa?

A.—There were 2,000 whites. The number of natives is not known, but is estimated at about 20,000.

Q.—How many troops had von Mackensen to invade Serbia?

A.—It is believed that he had 40,000 men available. In addition a small Austrian army entered Serbia from Bosnia, and the Bulgarians swarmed across from the East. Probably by the time the conquest of Serbia was completed 750,000 enemy troops were in the country.

Q.—How many troops did India send to the front?

A.—The exact number has not been published, but in 1916 the Secretary of State for India said that when the war began, India offered seven and one-third divisions of infantry and five cavalry brigades. That would appear to mean about 140,000 infantry and 9,000 mounted men, with all necessary equipment, horses, guns, etc. In August, 1914, two divisions of infantry and one of cavalry were sent to France, and two cavalry brigades followed later. This would make in all 46,000 men. A division, 20,000 men, was sent to British East Africa. In October, when Turkey declared war, a division was sent to Mesopotamia, and another followed quickly, making 40,000 men there in all. In November, a brigade of cavalry and a division of infantry were sent to Egypt, 22,000 men. That is 128,000 fighting men. All these forces were transferred to their various destinations, complete with ambulances and general hospital. Presumably reinforcements have been sent to keep these armies up to full strength, although the Minister did not say this. Three divisions were mobilized to cope with the troubles on the northwest frontier, and, in addition, British infantry and artillery were set free for use outside of India.

Q.—What is the French Foreign Legion?

A.—The Foreign Legion is the name by which the world best knows the *Regiments Étrangers* in the French service. This legion is composed of adventurous spirits of all nationalities, and has long been employed in colonial campaigns. For a long time it was stationed in Algeria. All sorts and conditions of men are to be found in it, for courage is practically the sole criterion that governs enlistment. No inquiry is made into their previous careers. French, British, Germans, Americans, Russians—in fact, almost every nationality is to be found in the ranks. The commanding officers are French. The Legion has done excellent

service during the great war, and has suffered very heavy casualties.

Q.—Has the color of the French uniform been changed since the war began?

A.—Yes. It has been done slowly. A year or so before the outbreak of war, great efforts were made to introduce a uniform less conspicuous than the blue and red that the Republic's soldiers had always worn, but the scheme met with so much opposition that it was dropped. The new uniform is bluish-green, but, according to statements in technical dye journals, it loses its color quickly. The steel helmet, which has replaced the jaunty cap, is an equally useful change.

Q.—How large is the Greek army?

A.—The peace strength in 1915 was 60,000 men. The war strength was estimated as about 300,000. During the recent Balkan wars, Greece put ten divisions of 12,000 men in the field. Most of the artillery was obtained in France, but the rifles were of Austrian make.

Q.—What is the population of Greece?

A.—The population of Greece proper, according to the census of 1907, was 2,630,000; at that time its area was 25,000 square miles. Since then the Epirus and many Ægean Islands have been added, and also portions of Macedonia, conquered from Turkey in 1913, which make the total area 42,000 square miles, and the total population about 4,800,000.

Q.—Do all the troops at the front wear khaki?

A.—The Americans and British do, and the Germans have a field-gray uniform, which is even less visible than khaki. The French troops now have dull green uniforms. The Russians had a dark green uniform with red epaulettes, the Belgians a bluish-gray outfit.

Our own troops have worn the standard light brown khaki-color service uniforms for more than 20 years. The American color, while apparently quite pronounced when the uniforms are seen in cities, is excellent for low visibility against nearly every kind of landscape.

Q.—Are the Austrians strong fighters?

A.—On the whole, the Austrians have made a poor showing in this war. Any victories have been due largely to German assistance or to the weakness of their foe. In one respect the Austrian armies have been second to none—in their heavy artillery. The excellent artillery service of the dual empire forced the Italians to fight their way inch by inch through the mountains, and at all times Italy has been inferior to her enemy in this arm. The Austrians have been especially ingenious in developing heavy trench mortars, some of them hurling hundreds of pounds of high explosive into the opposing trenches.

Q.—Did Portugal greatly help the Allies before she joined them?

A.—As soon as hostilities began she declared her willingness to throw in her lot with the Allies whenever Great Britain so desired. Germany, before Portugal formally entered the war against her, protested strongly against the way in which the Portuguese permitted the violation of their neutrality by allowing British warships to use their harbors and granting permission to British troops to cross the colony of Mozambique to attack German East Africa. The Kaiser also protested against Portugal's practice in allowing Great Britain to use Madeira as a naval base.

Q.—What is meant by the "Battalion of Death"?

A.—A fighting legion of women and girls of all classes in Russia, organized in 1917, and commanded by Madame Botchkalov, a Russian revolutionist. They became a part of the Russian army and took brilliant part in several engagements.

Q.—Did the Vatican spread disruptive propaganda among the Italian troops?

A.—The New York newspapers of January 30, 1918, published the following statement:

Denials from the Pope's Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Prime Minister of Italy, and others that the Pope was responsible for spreading disruptive propaganda or for the Italian disaster were made public by Adrian Iselin, Chairman of a committee of Catholic laymen.

This information was contained in a letter by F. C. Walcott of the United States Food Administration, in retracting a statement which he had made.

Mr. Walcott said:

"My statement attributed to the Pope a measure of responsibility for the Italian disaster, and for the disruptive propa-

ganda which had brought it about. I repeated thoughtlessly and without previous reflection a rumor I had heard, which I had not verified, and which I am now convinced and believe was untrue. I have since read the categorical denial of Cardinal Gasparri, the Pope's Minister of Foreign Affairs, and the denial of Cardinal Bourne in London, and I have also read the statement recently made by Signor Orlando, the Prime Minister of Italy, in the Italian Chamber of Deputies.

"I therefore feel that it is my duty to retract the statement I made in regard to the Pope, which I do without reserve, and I would like to correct the unfortunate and erroneous impression my remarks tended to create."

Q.—Did the Pope induce the Turks to respect British graves on Gallipoli?

A.—Yes. He communicated with the Turkish Government in the matter, through the Apostolic Delegate at Constantinople. Enver Pasha, in reply, assured him that the graves and the religious emblems that adorned them would be carefully protected. As a mark of his esteem for the Pope he had photographs taken of the graves and sent to Rome.

Q.—What is the origin of the word "Anzac"?

A.—It was a composite word used as the name of the British colonial troops in the romantic, though unsuccessful, Gallipoli undertaking. The men were from Australia and New Zealand, and, as their organization was officially known as the Australian-New Zealand Army Corps, the initial letters of this long title were put together to form the new word.

Q.—What is the fate of a captured newspaper correspondent?

A.—The enemy should treat him as a prisoner of war, provided he can produce or obtain a certificate from the military authorities of the army he was accompanying.

Q.—What is the fate of a non-combatant with arms in his hands?

A.—The rules of war permit his being shot without mercy. His position is a little better now than it was before the Hague Conference of 1907. It was agreed there that if he carries arms openly and respects the laws and customs of war, he must be regarded as a belligerent. He must, however, wear some sort of a uniform or badge, which can be recognized at a distance, and which cannot be removed at will. This was urged by England and France, who desired to legalize the position of volunteers and irregulars, who previously were only entitled to be regarded as belligerents by the courtesy of their foe.

Q.—If a civilian, to defend his home, used a rifle, would he be shot if captured?

A.—Certainly he would.

Q.—But is that not murder?

A.—War, says General Sherman, is hell. But the rule forbidding civilians to resort to arms is absolutely necessary for the protection of all non-combatants. If civilians were permitted to fight, no troops would venture to enter a village or town until they had killed or driven out everyone in it. The troops alone must carry on war. The rest of the nation must remain at peace.

Q.—Have reprisals in previous wars brought about desired results?

A.—As a general rule, they have failed entirely, but in previous wars only a very small part of the entire communities of the countries at war were at all concerned. In *The Laws and Usages of War,* issued by the British War Office in 1914, various examples are given.

After such outrages as the German bombings of coast towns of no military importance there is always a loud demand from those who have suffered for similar action against the enemy.

It can be argued logically, too, that there is a certain kind of mentality which can apparently be impressed in no other way; hence, when one finds one's self in a conflict with such a barbarous-minded foe, there is no help for it save to fight him with his own weapons.

Beyond a question the threat of reprisals has often been effective in restraining such an enemy from going to the lengths he announced. The most scrupulous governments and commanders have not hesitated to protect their citizens by intimating that cruelties practised upon them would be met in kind.

Of course, as a general principle, reprisals are worse than ineffective—for they injure the morale of the nation adopting them and frequently cause increased savagery all round.

In this connection, it is worth noting that at the conference in 1917 between British and German delegates at The Hague it was decided that all reprisals should be abandoned, and both sides undertook to withdraw all prisoners from the war zones in the west.

Q.—How do people in the conquered French provinces obtain news?

A.—The Germans publish a newspaper called *Gazette des Ardennes,* 100,000 copies of which are circulated, chiefly through the post, three times a week. It gives the German side entirely.

Q.—Will the shell-filled battlegrounds not be dangerous for farmers?

A.—The danger has been realized. Unless something is done it would be quite possible for a ploughman to strike a shell with sufficient force to kill him or blow his horses to pieces. Various solutions of the problem have been suggested. A French scientist has perfected an electrical instrument which will give warning when a mass of metal is near. The apparatus requires the services of two men. They can explore an acre thoroughly in about an hour, and discover every shell near enough to the surface to do any harm.

Q.—What is the British law referred to as "Dora"?

A.—"Dora" is the nickname or abbreviation for the Defense of the Realm Act.

Q.—How many English horses were bought for war?

A.—The figures for 1916 show that during that year 400,000 horses had been purchased at a cost of almost $100,000,000 which works out at an average of nearly $250 each.

Q.—Is it true that the English censor expurgated Kipling's verse?

A.—He cut out a couple of words from a quotation from Kipling's Recessional, which a correspondent at the front was ill-advised enough to put in one of his despatches. The particular lines which fell under the censor's ban were:

"The tumult and the shouting dies
The captains and the kings depart."

The censor put his pen through "and the kings," for it was obviously dangerous to refer to the movements of kings in this reckless way! Curiously enough Kipling got into trouble over the same pair of lines fifteen years ago. It was the censors of language, the grammarians and their devoted followers who pitched into him then, and they objected to the first line on the ground that it is customary to provide a plural subject with a plural verb. The Kiplingites rushed to the defense of their master, and argued that tumult and shouting meant the same thing, and that the subject was "psychologically singular."

Q.—What do the letters behind English names mean?

A.—A few of the most usual are abbreviated as follows: O.M. signifies Order of Merit, and is the only honor conferred without the recipient's consent having first been obtained; K.G., Knight of the Garter; K.T., Knight of the Thistle.; K.P., Knight of St. Patrick; K.C.B., Knight Commander of the Bath; G.C.B., Knight Grand Cross of the Bath; C.B., Companion of the Bath; K.C.S.I., Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India; C.S.I., Companion of the Star of India; G.C.M.G. and K.C.M.G., Knight Grand Cross and Knight Commander respectively of St. Michael and St. George; C.M.G., Companion of that Order; G.C.I.E. and K.C.I.E., Knight Grand Cross and Knight Commander of the Indian Empire; C.V.O., Commander of the Victorian Order; D.S.O., Distinguished Service Order. The above are given in order of precedence. Other letters used are: P.C., Privy Councillor; V.C., Victoria Cross; L.H., Legion of Honor.

Q.—Who were the Franc-Tireurs?

A.—They were irregular bands of Frenchmen who waged a guerilla warfare against the German invaders in 1871. The Germans did not recognize them as belligerents unless they wore a uniform. When caught without one, they were summarily shot. The shooting of non-combatants who have taken up arms is the military act of force which gives rise to the wildest stories and also deeds of cold-blooded murder in all wars.

RAVAGED BELGIUM

Q.—Did Germany issue an ultimatum to Belgium?

A.—Yes. At 7 p.m., on August 2, 1914, Herr Von Bülow delivered Germany's ultimatum, which was in effect an announcement of Germany's intention to violate Belgium's neutrality forcibly if necessary. Belgium's resolve to uphold her own neutrality was given to the German ambassador within twenty-four hours. Germany, however, had not waited for a response, but had already invaded Belgian soil at Vise.

Q.—Did Germany ever confess that entrance into Belgium was a violation of treaty?

A.—The German Chancellor acknowledged the entrance into Belgium as a violation of treaty and characterized it as a "wrong dictated by military necessity." The Kaiser in a message to President Wilson, dated August 10, 1914, through Mr. Gerard, speaks of it as "Belgian neutrality which had to be violated by Germany on strategical grounds."

Q.—Did the United States acknowledge the right of Germany to take Belgium?

A.—No. Mr. Whitlock remained accredited to the Belgian government. Germany holds the occupied part of Belgium by martial law alone.

Q.—Who was Belgian prime minister at outbreak of war?

A.—Baron de Brocqueville was the Premier and Minister of War. These two offices are vested in one minister.

Q.—Under what rule is Luxembourg at present?

A.—German troops invaded Luxembourg on Sunday morning, August 2, in order (according to the German government) to assure the use of the railways, which had been leased to Germany, and they now occupy it.

Q.—Is Luxembourg a neutral still?

A.—Probably she is, technically. Luxembourg protested against the violation of its neutrality and against the expulsion of the French ambassador on August 4. But the duchy is said to have received about $256,000 indemnity, because it refrained from armed resistance, and acceptance of this may be held to have clouded the title to neutrality. However, Luxembourg appears still to be considered neutral and independent. Its ruler is Grand-Duchess Marie-Adelaide.

Q.—What became of English and French properties in Belgium?

A.—The American ambassador, Mr. Whitlock, assumed the French and British legations as well as the German and Austrian, protecting as best he could all their interests. The Germans, however, have shown small regard for the property or rights of any other nation, enemy or otherwise.

Q.—Was Brussels besieged by the Germans?

A.—No. Mr. Whitlock, the American ambassador, realizing the futility of attempting a defense, urged upon the Belgian General Staff that they surrender the city without resistance, hoping thereby to save not only the lives of the inhabitants, but the historic buildings, art treasures, etc. The Germans took the city without a siege on August 20, 1914.

Q.—Was Belgium an entirely independent country?

A.—Belgium is an independent constitutional monarchy with a national existence dating to 1830, when by a revolution it separated itself from Holland with which it had been combined in 1815 by the Congress of Vienna. Belgium has a King, a House of Parliament (Senate and a Chamber of Deputies) elected by popular suffrage. There are three powerful political parties: Catholic, Liberal, and Socialist. Belgian neutrality was guaranteed in 1839 by England, Russia, France and Germany as a mutually protective measure.

Q.—Are the Belgians a homogeneous race?

A.—There are two lingually distinct peoples—Walloons and Flemings. The Walloons dwell in the Provinces of Hainault, Namur, Liége, and parts of Luxembourg and South Brabant. A few

live in the French departments of Nord and Ardennes. They resemble the French in vivacity and adaptability. There were about 2,600,000 of them, and their literary tongue is French while their dialect is Romanesque.

The Flemings live in Flanders, and at one time were an important industrial autonomous community. Their country was bounded by the Scheldt, the North Sea, and the Somme, and has always been much fought over, but, nevertheless, has always preserved active industrial interests. About 3,500,000 Flemings live in Belgium. Their language may be described as a sort of southern Dutch. Some 2,000,000 speak nothing else, but many speak Flemish and French.

Q.—Was there a movement for Flemish separation?

A.—In 1917 some Flemings who called themselves "Activists" and were highly favored by the German occupying authorities, created a "Council of Flanders" of about 70 members and proclaimed a separation of Belgium into two administrative divisions—the northern Flemish in speech with Brussels as capital, the southern French speaking with Namur as capital. They proclaimed the "political independence" of Flanders January 14, 1918. Prominent Belgians such as Cardinal Mercier, civil authorities, etc., protested passionately. Brand Whitlock, American Ambassador to Belgium, said of it March 18, 1918, that it was "worst of all the terrible deeds that Germany has committed in Belgium; worse than the atrocities, worse than deportations. They killed the body: this would kill the soul."

Q.—Did the Belgian authorities acknowledge the separation?

A.—No. In February, 1918, the Belgian Court of Appeals in Brussels ordered prosecution of the "Activists" for treason in plotting against the form of government established by the Belgian Constitution. Several leaders were arrested.

Q.—Were the Belgian courts in force?

A.—Yes. The process of the court was executed. However, the Germans took a hand then. They declared that the Belgian judges had exceeded their authority, and when the arrested men were sentenced, they ordered their release. The judges refused, and were arrested in their turn. The Belgian courts went on strike as protest, and still were on strike in August, 1918. German courts were then created by the invaders.

Q.—Do Flemings and Walloons naturally wish to separate?

A.—The Activist movement obviously was fostered by the Germans. Flemings and Walloons, it is true, have long had some diverging views. Flemings had felt that they were dominated unduly by Walloons. Some years before the war, there was a great "Flemish revival," led by such men as Huysmans. But this was in the direction of reinstating Flemish literature and language, and it aimed only toward cultural development within the Belgian State.

Q.—Was Belgian neutrality different from other neutrality?

A.—Yes. The neutrality of the big nations like the United States, Great Britain, Germany, etc., in case of a war between other nations, is something for each to decide for itself. It may remain neutral or not just as it chooses. If it chooses not to be neutral, it must, of course, accept the risk that goes with its position, but it has the right to do what it wishes. Belgium was different from this; Belgium's neutrality was an obligation on her part. She was bound by treaty to maintain her neutrality. It was a contract between herself and Great Britain, France and Germany; and these powers in turn, agreed to respect her neutrality and to prevent any violation of it by anybody.

Q.—What were the Belgian deportations?

A.—The German army authorities early sent considerable groups of the population to Germany on various grounds, some as hostages, others in punishment for offenses charged against the civilian population of various districts, others for refusing to work for the invaders. The general order (issued October 12, 1915) was that persons who refused work suitable to their occupation and in which the military administration was interested, were subject to a year's imprisonment or deportation to Germany. In October, 1916, there began wholesale deportation for work in Germany. It started in Ghent and Bruges, spread to other districts, and continued for more than a year.

Q.—Were many Belgians deported to Germany?

A.—Between 100,000 to 300,000, according to varying estimates. In a report (January, 1917) to the State Department, Brand Whitlock said: "The rage, terror and despair excited by this measure all over Belgium were beyond anything we had witnessed since the day the Germans poured into Brussels. . . . In tearing away from nearly every humble home a husband and a father or a son and a brother, they have lighted a fire of hatred that will never go out."

Q.—Would it cost Germany more to restore Belgium or to continue war?

A.—The very lowest estimate of Germany's war-cost was $127,000,000 a week. That estimate was made early in 1917, before we entered the war, and it did not take into account the steadily rising cost week after week. It is fair to assume that even if the German expenses are less than those of the Allies, the weekly cost in March, 1918, had risen to $140,000,000 at least. Assuming that Liége, Louvain, Tournai, Courtrai and Vervieres had been entirely destroyed (which is not correct, as the destruction is only partial), Germany could probably pay the total value of these five cities alone out of three weeks' war-costs. An estimate of the values of five of our very important New England manufacturing towns (calculated in 1915 by military experts to estimate the possible cost of invasion to America) gives their value as $483,000,000.

Q.—What damages could Germany pay Belgian sufferers with one week's war-cost?

A.—She could pay each and every inhabitant of Vervieres, Louvain, Tournai, Courtrai, Namur, Mons and Charleroi almost $1,000.

She could pay for almost all the forests of Belgium (estimating their value as based on the Belgian revenues from forests products). Or she could pay damages amounting to more than $10,000 for every square mile of Belgian territory. Or she could pay three times over for every bit of live stock that existed in Belgium before the war.

Q.—How many houses were destroyed in all Belgium?

A.—According to a report issued officially by the Belgian Government, the total number of buildings destroyed in the whole country was estimated on May 1, 1916, as 43,198.

Q.—What was wanton destruction mostly?

A.—The Belgian official commission said in its report that it was not possible to make distinction between buildings destroyed by acts of war and those which were destroyed as punishment for alleged hostile acts of the population. The report added: "It can be admitted at once that the destruction of buildings in West Flanders is due almost entirely to bombardments, and it is estimated, on the other hand, that at least 20,000 buildings in the rest of the country have been set afire by the German armies under pretext of reprisals."

Q.—What sum would cover damage to destroyed property?

A.—Assuming that all the 43,198 destroyed buildings in Belgium had been destroyed by the Germans, and assuming that each building was worth $10,000 (which is a valuation wildly beyond the possible actual values, since most of the houses were small village houses), the total sum needed to pay for the destruction would be $431,980,000. Three weeks' war-cost at $140,000,000 a week would pay even this high sum. If we estimate an average value of $2,000 a house (still fairly high, but approximately near actual facts), we would have damages amounting to $86,396,000—payable out of 4½ days' war-cost.

Q.—What are the total Belgian losses?

A.—There has been no official statement of total loss. In October, 1918, an official Belgian source presented an incomplete estimate of damages and losses, counting levies, contributions, etc., as amounting to not much under two billions of dollars.

Q.—Has Belgium been used as a battlefield often?

A.—Not since its neutralization. Before that, every time there was war in western Europe, Belgium was a scene of either battles or army-movements.

The French and British Wars, seventeenth and eighteenth century, were largely fought on Belgian territory. Many of the famous European battles were around Belgian towns—the Battle of the Spurs (1302), Courtrai; Bruges (1745, 1794), occupied by French; Brus-

sels, French, Spanish and Austrian wars; Tournay, English and French (1709); Louvain taken by French (1792, 1794); Liége taken by Marlborough (1702), by French (1792); Lierre taken by Marlborough (1706); Namur bombarded by Allies against Napoleon (1804); Tirlemont, Austrians and French (1793, 1794); Roulers, Austrians and French (1794); Waterloo, defeat of Napoleon (1815).

Q.—Was Antwerp fortified?

A.—It was regarded as the strongest fortress in the world. Five years before the war it was decided to spend $20,000,000 on remodeling the forts, and providing new armaments. In addition to the great protecting forts, the town was encircled by ramparts, and completely surrounded by wide channels of water. Powerful forts covered the Scheldt (which is also called the Escaut until it reaches the Dutch frontier). As we know, the forts, deemed impregnable, were battered to bits by the huge German howitzers, their own guns being of too short a range to reply.

Q.—Was Antwerp the greatest seaport in the whole world?

A.—New York handled a couple of hundred thousand more tons in 1913, but for a long time Antwerp has been first. The recent immense growth in tonnage of the transatlantic liners has given New York her premier position. The figures are interesting:

	Entered.	Cleared.
New York	12,763,765	13,549,138
Antwerp	13,233,677	13,272,665
Hamburg	11,830,949	11,946,239
Hong Kong	11,138,527	11,142,117
Rotterdam	10,624,499	10,609,814
London	10,800,716	8,748,008
Monte Video ...	8,244,375	8,121,543
Marseilles	8,051,321	8,198,874
Singapore	7,737,785	7,717,691
Cardiff	6,236,944	9,168,115
Liverpool	7,253,016	7,446,873
Colombo	7,074,152	7,073,170
Rio de Janeiro..	5,212,713	5,198,784
Shanghai	4,183,528	4,155,152

Q.—In ordinary times is Belgium self-supporting?

A.—Not by a very large margin. In times of peace Belgium, like Great Britain, was obliged to import large quantities of foodstuffs, almost two-thirds, in fact, of the total consumption. It is obvious enough, therefore, that if the Belgians are to exist, large quantities of food must be sent them from outside.

Q.—How many Belgian refugees were still in Holland in 1917?

A.—According to the last official report, January, 1917, less than eighteen thousand were then in Holland who were dependent on Dutch hospitality. An equal number were estimated to be there, also, who were paying their own expenses. During the German invasion it is said that a million refugees reached Holland from over the border, but many soon returned to Belgium, and many crossed to England. During 1915 Holland spent $3,500,000 for the maintenance of refugees.

Q.—Who was Edith Cavell?

A.—She was an Englishwoman, directress of a large nursing home at Brussels, Belgium.

Q.—Why was she executed by the Germans?

A.—On Aug. 5, 1915, she was arrested by the German authorities and confined in the prison at St. Gilles on the charge that she had aided stragglers from the Allied armies to escape across the frontier from Belgium to Holland, furnishing them with money, clothing and information concerning the route to be followed. Her lawyer was not allowed to see her before the trial or to examine any of the prosecution's documents.

Q.—Was it right to call her a spy?

A.—No. She was tried on the charge of "aiding the hostile Power or causing harm to German or allied troops," which constitutes "treason" under the German Penal Code.

Hugh Gibson, Secretary of our Legation in Brussels, who made every effort open to him on Miss Cavell's behalf, pronounces the sentence a strained reading of the law: "A false interpretation was wilfully put upon these provisions in order to secure a conviction."

She was not a spy, according to the German's own accusation; only when the whole world signified its execration of the act did the German officials begin to refer to her as "the spy Cavell." She was a devoted, brave woman whose name will ever be cherished.

The manner of her execution was in character with the whole proceeding against her. Mr. Gibson secured a definite promise from Herr Conrad, of the

Political Department, to inform her friends of the decision the moment the court should pass judgment. This was confirmed at 6:20 p. m. on October 12. Yet over an hour before *the judges had actually pronounced sentence.*

In spite of all protests, Miss Cavell was shot before daybreak.

The German military chaplain who stayed with her at the end declared:

"She died like a heroine."

Q.—Was any effort made by the American Legation to stay the execution of Miss Cavell?

A.—Yes. As the American Legation was entrusted with the British interests in the occupied portions of Belgium, the American Minister and his staff tried their utmost to get the German authorities to agree to allow the legal counselor of the Legation to consult with Miss Cavell and, if desirable, entrust someone with her defense. This was not allowed and, although frantic efforts were made to get the authorities to delay sentence, nothing could be accomplished.

Q.—By how many men was Liége defended?

A.—About 20,000 Belgian soldiers were in the fortification scheme of Liége, a territory of about thirty miles.

Q.—How many men did Belgium have at the front during the invasion of her country?

A.—Belgium had probably about one hundred thousand men at the front during the invasion.

Q.—What was the Belgian relief movement?

A.—After war began in 1914 an organization was created quickly under direction of Herbert C. Hoover, to relieve destitution in the invaded country. It was financed by private contributions at first, and Americans supplied large sums. From June 1, 1917, the United States advanced $12,500,000 a month to carry it on. Huge quantities of food and clothing were shipped in, the German occupying authorities having entered into an agreement to abstain from interference or requisition. Up to April, 1918, the United States had sent 9½ million bushels potatoes, 52,000 tons flour, 14,000 tons corn, 983 tons meat, 31,000 tons cheese, 2,700 tons rice, 4,000 tons peas and beans, and 122,000 tons clothing.

Q.—What are The Hague Conventions?

A.—They are agreements reached between nations regarding certain international matters. The great ones are: (1) A convention for the pacific settlement of international conflicts. (2) A convention relative to the recovery of contractual debts. (3) A convention relative to the opening of hostilities. (4) A convention concerning the laws and customs of war on land. (5) A convention concerning the rights and duties of neutral States and individuals in land warfare. (6) A convention regarding the treatment of the enemy's merchant ships at the outbreak of hostilities. (7) A convention regarding the transformation of merchant ships into vessels of war. (8) A convention in regard to the placing of submarine mines. (9) A convention concerning the bombardment of undefended towns by naval forces. (10) A convention for the adaptation of the principles of the Geneva convention to maritime warfare. (11) A convention imposing certain restrictions upon the right of capture in maritime war. (12) A convention providing for the establishment of an international prize court. (13) A convention defining the rights and duties of neutral States in maritime war.

Q.—Is The Hague Tribunal elected annually?

A.—The Hague Tribunal is a permanent court of arbitration at The Hague, and is "competent for all arbitrations, unless the parties agree to institute a special tribunal." Each signatory power selects four persons, at the most, whose tenure is six years, and whose appointments are renewable. When it is desired to have recourse to arbitration under The Hague convention, a special tribunal is selected from this list. The members of the court enjoy diplomatic immunities. The United States was the first power to submit a case to The Hague court. This was the case of the "Pious Fund of the Californias" with Mexico.

Q.—What is meant by the "scrap of paper"?

A.—On August 4, 1914, the British Ambassador in Berlin, Sir Edward Goschen, justified the entrance of England into the war chiefly on the ground that Germany had violated the neutrality of Belgium. In his dispatch to the British Government, he reported his conversation with the German Chancellor, von Bethmann-

Hollweg, who said: "Just for a word—'neutrality,' a word which in war-time had so often been disregarded—just for a scrap of paper Great Britain was going to make war on a kindred nation."

Q.—Was the "scrap of paper" story ever denied?

A.—The Committee on Public Information (Washington) says: "When the dispatch was published by the British Government, the Associated Press correspondent obtained an interview with the German Chancellor, who said that Sir Edward Goschen had misunderstood what he had said about the scrap of paper. The Chancellor maintained that what he had said was that England entered the war to serve her interests; and that among her motives the Belgian neutrality treaty 'had for her only the value of a scrap of paper.'"

Q.—Did Germany intend to keep Belgium if possible?

A.—Through the first four years of war, Germany's official spokesmen avoided any clear, specific binding declaration, and all that time powerful factions conducted propaganda that grew steadily in boldness and frankness, aiming to create throughout Germany a popular demand for Belgium's retention. The possession of Antwerp was urged particularly.

Q.—Did official Germany finally pretend to declare itself?

A.—Yes. On July 12, 1918, just before German troops started the offensive across the Marne which brought on the great French, American and British counter-offensive of July and August, Count von Hertling, the Imperial Chancellor, said in the course of a speech before the Reichstag Main Committee: "The present possession of Belgium only means that we have a pawn for future negotiations. We have no intention to keep Belgium in any form whatever. What we precisely want is that after the war restored Belgium shall, as a self-dependent State, not be subject to anybody as a vassal and shall live with us in good friendly relations. . . . What we want is inviolability of our territory, open air for the expansion of our people in the economic domain, and naturally also security in regard to the future."

Q.—Were any British soldiers in Belgium before the Germans?

A.—It was not until August 14, 1914, that the first British troops reached the Continent.

Q.—Did America by treaty pledge herself to the integrity of Luxembourg and Belgium?

A.—The United States never guaranteed Belgium or Luxembourg. She had nothing whatever to do with the Treaty of London, by which, in 1839, Great Britain, France, Prussia, Russia, and Austria guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium. In no treaty that the United States ever signed has it in any way undertaken to guarantee the neutrality of any European State. It is often asserted, even now, that the United States was, in some way, responsible by treaty for Belgium, but she had no more responsibility for that small kingdom than she has for Russia, France, Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, or any other country in Europe. She was, it is true, a signatory of The Hague Conventions, which, in general terms reaffirmed the inviolability of neutrals in war time, but in signing these she specifically declared that nothing in the Conventions should be binding on her if it involved a violation of the Monroe Doctrine, or would embroil her in European conflagrations.

(See pages in end of volume for details of German Invasion and Occupation.)

LITHUANIANS AND POLES

Q.—Are the people of Courland, Livonia and Esthonia not Slavs?

A.—They are not. They are of a very distinct racial stock known as Letts. The Lettish people claim that they are among the oldest races of Europe, and there is foundation for this assertion. Ethnology finds that distinct Lettish characteristics (language, folk-lore, physical traits, etc.) justify the supposition that the Lettish racial history goes back four or even five thousand years.

Q.—What specious use did the Germans make of this?

A.—The Pan-Germans use this to pretend in their arguments to show why the Baltic Sea provinces were not truly a part of Russia—with the deduction, as the Pan-Germans saw it, that, therefore, they might "naturally" be made a part of Germany. The Germans did once rule them —very long ago.

Q.—Why should Germany desire the provinces?

A.—Largely because they contain the very useful seaport of Riga. In addition, the coast-line extends to the eastern end of the Baltic, and thus would round out German possession of the whole Baltic coast. Beyond this, their hold would thus extend to the mouth of the Gulf of Finland, commanding the approach to Petrograd. A very powerful class has a more specific and direct interest in the acquisition of these Baltic Sea Provinces. Adjoining, as they do, the territory of the large land-holding aristocracy of East Prussia, they tempt to extension of these agricultural interests and offer field for German peasant colonization.

Q.—Has Russia always owned the Baltic Sea territory?

A.—No. Lithuania belonged to Poland once. Russia obtained it in the Polish dismemberments during the eighteenth century.

Q.—Were the Baltic provinces ever independent?

A.—Only in a very general sense. They formed one state, Livonia, but in one way or another it was always ruled or tributary.

In 1561 the state was finally broken up, part (now belonging to the Russian province of Vitebsk) being annexed to Poland, part (Livonia and Esthonia) being appropriated by Sweden, and part (Courland) being constituted as a duchy under the suzerainty of the King of Poland. Thus, though the population remained very independent ethnologically, and still is composed of Letts and Esthonians, races of Finno-Lithuanian origin, the rulers were always aliens, ending with the Russians.

The Germans came to this region in the thirteenth century, first as colonists and then in the garb of "Brothers of the Sword" (a religious order created after the manner of the Teutonic Knights) as conquerors.

One of the three main branches of the Lithuanian people, the Borussians, came completely under their domination and ceased to have any separate nationality, leaving only their name to the state of Prussia.

Q.—Where were the sympathies of these provinces?

A.—There were very strong commercial German interests, and also powerful official leanings towards Russia. But the body of the Lithuanian folk, including the Baltic provinces, has always been most tenacious of racial traditions. Their former pagan divinities, for instance, are continually mentioned in their songs and everyday speech.

As might be expected from such a people the mass of them have no desire to be either Russian or German but cherish aspirations for political entity of their own—quite similar to those of the Checho-Slovaks or Jugo-Slavs.

Q.—Was Poland ever a very large nation?

A.—At the beginning of the Reformation in Europe (Luther's time, 1483-1536), the area of Poland was greater than that of Germany proper; that is, excluding the various Italian and Austrian portions of the Empire. The Poles were then, and remained for many generations, the most warlike nation in Europe in many senses, wonderfully brave, marvelously skilled in dashing warfare, particularly with cavalry, and extremely restless and fiery.

At one time their rulership extended from the Baltic to the Black Sea. They held Livonia, Esthonia and Courland on the Baltic, and Galicia on the Hungarian border, with such cities as Lemberg. They conquered a large part of the Ukraine, threatening the Tartars of the Crimea.

Incessant wars with the Cossacks of the Black Sea and the Don and with the Tartars did much to sap their national strength.

Q.—When was Poland broken up?

A.—Its downfall may be said to have begun when the Swedes and Russians broke into it in 1564 and conquered it. Its final doom came when continual wars ended in the famous agreement between Catherine II of Russia, Frederick II of Prussia, and Maria Theresa of Austria to dismember the kingdom.

From that time Poland became subject to successive partitions. Between 1772 and 1795 it was thus divided and sub-divided, till Russia had what is now Russian Poland and Lithuania, Prussia had what is now West Prussia and Posen, and Austria had Galicia.

In 1815, at the Congress of Vienna, there was a new partition by which Russia got the greater part of Poland. The Poles have rebelled several times (twice in the last century, 1830 and 1863), but their efforts were unsuccessful.

Q.—Was there a Duchy of Warsaw?

A.—Yes. After the eighteenth-century partitions, there still remained a "free Poland"—a small strip of land around Warsaw. With the fall of Napoleon and the Congress of Vienna, the freedom of the Duchy of Warsaw was guaranteed under the protection of Russia, but after the revolt of 1830, it was formally annexed and ruled from Petrograd. There have been many tumultuous days in Warsaw since. The "loyalty" of Poland in time of war has always been in question, for the Poles have always declared that they will be content with nothing short of a constitutional government of their own.

Q.—Did wars alone cause Poland's downfall?

A.—No. Its own inherent weaknesses were great factors. It was in the tyrannical grip of an aristocracy, consisting of nobles and a turbulent gentry. The serfs were reduced to the lowest position of any in Europe. The Diet or Parliament, which elected the King, often refused to grant the revenues and armies necessary for the public defense. A peculiar privilege, known as the *liberum veto*, by which any measure could be defeated by a single objecting vote, brought the legislature, as well as the monarchy, to a state of impotence. "The road to Warsaw" became a byword in Europe for "the road to national ruin."

Q.—What are the Ukrainians?

A.—"Ukraine" means border-land. The Ukrainians are known as Little Russians in Russia and as Ruthenians in Austria and Hungary. There are about 34,500,000, distributed as follows: southern Russia, 28,000,000; rest of European and Asiatic Russia, 2,000,000; Galicia, 3,500,000; Hungary, 500,000; Bukowina, 400,000.

The Ukrainians have asserted their right to independent existence for centuries. They claim that they own the land from the Carpathians to the Caucasus, extending well northward into Russia, including parts of Russian and Austrian Galicia and parts of what is known as Russian Poland.

They assert that the first alienation of territory occurred when the Poles conquered all western Russia from the Baltic to the Black Sea. Later, when the Poles were conquered in turn by the Russians, the Ukrainians became subject to Russia, but they have never lost their racial sense.

The country they claim is said to be the richest agricultural territory in the world. It contains the famous "black-earth belt" that stretches from the Carpathians to the Urals. Kiev and Odessa are among the big cities that are in this claimed territory.

Q.—Does the Ukrainian claim fall under the principle of self-determination?

A.—It does. But it is vastly complicated because of the political fissures between the people themselves. Thus, the extreme Ukrainians claim that all Russian Poland reaching to and beyond Brest-Litovsk is properly part of the Ukraine. But the Poles also claim this territory as distinctly part of their nationality. In the days of Poland's greatness, they conquered part of the Ukraine, and Poles are now numerous in some parts. Many of these Polish Ukrainians are politically powerful, being land-holders and merchants.

Q.—Who are the Cossacks?

A.—Originally they were roving bands inhabiting what is now known as the Ukraine. Hunters and fishermen originally, the encroaching Turks and Tartars compelled them to take to arms to protect themselves. Later, becoming stronger, they carried the war into their

enemies' country, and harried them, carried on, indeed, a war of extermination. Curiously enough, they borrowed their name from the lower ranks of Tartar soldiery called *Kasaki*, a word meaning freebooters. The success of their raids induced them to go further afield, and, in time, they became dangerous to the settled western lands they should have protected from Turkish inroads.

Q.—Where did they come from originally?

A.—When Lublin and Lithuania were incorporated in Poland, in the sixteenth century, many serfs migrated from these provinces to escape the heavy taxes and the cruel rule of the Polish nobles. They settled along the Dnieper, and spread, in time, eastwards to the Don. On the former river they set up a sort of commonwealth, nominally under Polish domination. However, the relations between the Cossacks and the Poles were often strained, and finally religious differences led to open fighting. The Poles were, and are, Roman Catholics, and the Cossacks profess the Orthodox religion. This, at first, led to the loss of all the privileges the Cossacks had enjoyed. But, later, leagued with their old enemies, the Tartars, they defeated the Poles and established a brief independence. Finally they and their lands were incorporated in Muscovy, and they have been Russian ever since.

Q.—Do the Cossacks have special privileges?

A.—They still enjoy some of the privileges which were granted them when the migration from Lithuania took place. In return for these they are bound to give military service to the State for twenty years. They are scattered in ten separate districts, the most notable lying along the Don, the home of the Don Cossacks, who have played so prominent a part in Russian affairs since the Revolution. The Cossacks live in loosely cooperative communities, which own land given by the government. The primary unit is the stahitza, or village, which holds the land as a commune. These village communities elect assemblymen, who direct communal cultivation, education, and the like. The villagers appoint a supreme elder, and judges, who settle all minor disputes.

Q.—What kind of military service must they render?

A.—Every man must serve as a soldier from 18 to 38. For the first three years he undergoes training, for the next twelve he is on active service, and for the last five he is in the reserve. In times of peace, actually only about a third are on active service, and two-thirds remain at home. When war breaks out, however, all join the army at once. Every Cossack must provide his own uniform, equipment and horse. The State gives the weapons.

Q.—Are there many Cossacks?

A.—Over three million (half women). They put between 300,000 and 400,000 trained soldiers into the field. All of them live on the land. They lease their mines to outsiders, who also run most of the factories in their territories.

Q.—Are all Cossacks cavalrymen?

A.—Most of them are, only about 20,000 infantry being supplied by them. It is a common practice to call all Russian mounted men Cossacks, but it is incorrect.

Q.—Was Finland always Russian?

A.—Finland was a free country from its foundation (about eighth century) to 1293, when Sweden conquered it. In 1809 it was "united" to Russia, but it retained its Constitution and National Assembly until at a favorable moment, in 1899, Nicholas declared it wholly a part of the central government. Finland protested to the Great Powers that the act was a violation of its rights, but received no aid. At the time of the Japanese war, a general strike by all the laborers forced the government to grant demands for a constitutional assembly. After the crisis had passed, the assembly became a mere figurehead again.

The Finns, not being Slavic but allies in racial stock to the Magyars (both of Asiatic origin), never were willing to remain Russian. Soon after the Russian Revolution they proclaimed their independence, but the Russian Provincial government under Kerensky would not acknowledge it, holding that it was a matter for the Russian National Assembly to decide.

Q.—Was Finland's subjection due to Pan-Slavism?

A.—The incorporation of Finland and Poland both were part of the general movement of "Russification"; and an attempt to suppress racial differences and form one language, one church, and one government. In its wider aspect, it is called Pan-Slavism and includes the Slav races of the States in the Balkans. It first

appeared violently on the accession of Alexander III to the throne in 1881. The Russian Czar, like the former Popes of the Roman Catholic world, united in himself the rule of the Greek (Slav) Catholic Church and the temporal power over the vast areas of the Russian Empire.

Q.—Does Germany compel the Poles in Poland to speak German?

A.—It has been reported that she has done so, but the Germans have apparently tried to conciliate the Poles, and have promised them autonomy and control of their internal affairs. In pursuance of this policy no tribute appears to have been levied on any of the Polish towns captured.

The Germans tried to make the Poles in the Polish provinces of Prussia speak German, and even went so far as to punish school children who went on strike because they were compelled to learn their lessons in German.

The Russians have also systematically tried to stamp out the Polish language.

Q.—Are there many people in the Baltic provinces?

A.—Esthonia has an area of 7,600 square miles, with an estimated population of some half a million; Livonia, the largest of the three provinces, has an area of 17,500 square miles, with a population of close upon 2,000,000; and Courland has an area of nearly 10,500 square miles, with a population of about 800,000. The population is divided into Esths or Esthonians, and Letts. There is a percentage of Germans. The remainder of the population in the three provinces is made up of fragments of Finns, Russians, Jews, and Lithuanians.

The farmers are, for the most part, proprietors of very small parcels of land, the inadequacy of which compels them to do additional work for the German landowner as hired laborer or rent some additional land from him on the metayer system.

Q.—To what race do the Galicians belong?

A.—There are two distinct racial strains in Galicia, both Slavonic—the Poles and the Ruthenians. These people differ temperamentally, historically and in religion, the Poles being generally Roman Catholics, the Ruthenians Greek Catholics. In the world war the Polish Galicians, for the most part, are pro-Austrian, while the Ruthenian sympathies lean toward the Russians.

CLAMORING NATIONALITIES

Q.—What were President Wilson's peace principles affecting small nationalities?

A.—They were four clauses laid down by the President in a Message to Congress, delivered February 11, 1918, and they expressed the following:

1. Each part of the final settlement must be based upon the essential justice of that particular case, and upon such adjustments as are the most likely to bring a peace that will be permanent.

2. Peoples and provinces are not to be bartered about from sovereignty to sovereignty, as if they were mere chattels and pawns in a game, even the great game, now forever discredited, of the balance of power; but that,

3. Every territorial settlement involved in this war must be made in the interest and for the benefit of the populations concerned, and not as a part of any mere adjustment or compromise of claims among rival States; and

4. All well-defined national aspirations shall be accorded the utmost satisfaction that can be accorded them without introducing new or perpetuating old elements of discord and antagonism that would be likely in time to break the peace of Europe, and, consequently, of the world.

Q.—How many small republics have been declared in Russia?

A.—Up to March, 1918, three had declared themselves, and had made their declarations good by taking definite steps toward organization and toward foreign recognition. From half a dozen to a dozen other movements had either begun or were struggling along. Of these, the most important were the separatist movements of the Cossacks of the Don, and of the trans-Caucasus and Siberian provinces.

The three really important and decisive ones that played a big part in the settlement of peace terms, were the Ukraine, Finland and Lithuania.

Q.—When were the Russian republics proclaimed?

A.—The Ukrainian republic was proclaimed by the Central Parliament (Rada) on Nov. 20, 1917, and was recognized at the Brest-Litovsk peace negotiations. The same important step was taken by Finland, which formally declared its independence as a republic on Dec. 5, 1917, and was recognized by Norway and Sweden. Lithuania formally declared its independence of Russia on Jan. 8, 1918.

Q.—Did other nations recognize the new republics?

A.—No. They remained non-committal. In February, 1918, the Supreme National Council of Lithuania in Switzerland presented to the representatives of all neutral and belligerent nations a resolution adopted by the Vilna State Council, proclaiming the re-establishment of the independent status of Lithuania, with Vilna as its capital, but there was no response up to the time of Russia's signing of the peace treaty.

Q.—Did Petrograd recognize the Ukraine republic?

A.—No. Both the Kerensky and the Lenine-Trotzky revolutionary governments refused to recognize an independent Ukraine, an independent Finland, or independent Lithuanian States. They sent troops to Finland and the Ukraine. The Lenine-Trotzky Government ordered war on the Ukraine, and continued hostilities till they themselves signed a treaty of peace with the Central Powers and therein bound themselves to recognize the new republics.

Q.—Why did the Bolsheviki oppose the Ukrainians?

A.—The Bolsheviki claimed that the party in the Ukraine that had proclaimed independence was a party composed of the bourgeois population; and, as the Bolsheviki plan for Russia was to make it a republic of the proletariat, an attempt by the bourgeois to assert independence was just as obnoxious to them (and quite logically so) as if the old aristocracy had attempted a counter-revolution in Russia. In fact, the "counter-revolution" feared by the Bolsheviki is essentially a counter-revolution by the bourgeois. If the Russian question were a perfectly clear-cut issue between aristocracy and common people, the situation would be very simple. We would then have seen much less of these apparently contradictory actions.

Q.—What is the correct name of the Ukraine republic?

A.—The new republic has called itself the Ukraine People's Republic. The republic was first declared by the Rada, or national assembly, called by the Ukraine people. Subsequent to declaring themselves an independent state, the Ukrainians proceeded to conduct separate peace negotiations with the Central Powers, after the Russian Bolsheviki Government had broken off the first Russian negotiations. Revolts against the Rada opened the way for occupation by German troops and by August, 1918, a virtual German military dictatorship was in force.

Q.—How big is the Ukraine republic?

A.—It is a very big country, indeed, but its exact area had not been officially outlined when the treaty of peace was made. It is known, however, that it was the hope of the Ukrainian Rada to take in all the Ukrainian races and sub-races, and that this hope, if realized, would extend the new republic to the land of the Don Cossacks—as far east as the Caucasus, almost. Northward, it was desired to go as far as Brest-Litovsk, and even beyond, but the Poles immediately raised such a clamor that it was decided to settle that part of the frontier later. With the exception of Bessarabia on the west and what remains to Russia of the Caucasus on the east, this republic quite cuts the rest of Russia from the Black Sea.

Q.—When was the Ukraine peace treaty signed?

A.—February, 1918, in the notorious Brest-Litovsk treaty with all the Central Powers. It provided for a peace without indemnities, and appointed a general western boundary for such part of the new republic as did not border on Austria-Hungary. As the northern limit of the western boundary runs into territory claimed by Poland, it was decided to leave its exact settlement to a commission. In Russia the peace was generally dubbed a food or bread-peace.

Q.—What can the Ukraine give to Germany?

A.—Wheat, rye, barley, sugar (beet), meat of all kinds, iron, manganese, mercury, timber.

The Ukraine is the granary of Europe, despite the very easy-going and antiquated methods that obtain through a large part of its territory. Its output of wheat, rye and barley alone is one-third of that produced by all Russia. It has amounted in previous years to about 35 million pounds.

Q.—How soon could Germany draw wheat from the Ukraine?

A.—Of course, the crops are available only when the time of harvest comes. But it is well known that big stores were held there when the war began. One of the big reasons for the desperate Dardanelles enterprise was to open the straits and thus free the wheat crop, which would have fed the Allies and paid part of Russia's debts. How much of this was left and what condition it was in, is not well known. But the German newspapers have complained bitterly of the disappointed hopes for large food-supplies from this source, and the peasants are reported to have refused to furnish grain.

A more immediate help is the meat which the Ukraine can furnish. Before the war the immense plains supported about 30 million cattle.

Q.—Where is the Lithuanian republic?

A.—It extends from Baltic Russia southward, expanding in the south to extend well into Russia. The area of the republic forms a sort of cushion around the north and east of Poland, separating it from what is left of Russia with a belt about 300 to 400 miles wide. It contains the four provinces of Kovno, Vilna, Minsk and Grodno.

Q.—About how big is this new republic?

A.—It contains about 82,000 square miles (about one-third larger than New England), and it has about 9 million population (which is also about one-third more than New England).

Q.—Does the Republic of Lithuania include the Baltic provinces?

A.—No. These were mentioned separately in the peace treaty between the Russians and the Central Powers. They were referred to as the States of Esthonia and Livonia.

Q.—What did the peace treaty say about the Baltic Sea provinces?

A.—There was a specific agreement as to the eastern boundaries of both Esthonia and Livonia, and Russia agreed to

evacuate them, while they were to be occupied by "a German police force until security is guaranteed by their own national institutions."

Q.—What is the State of Esthonia?

A.—It is one of the Russian Baltic Sea provinces inhabited by Letts and Lithuanians. These provinces run as follows, from west to east: (1) Courland, adjoining Germany, and containing the ports Libau and Riga; (2) Livonia, taking in the Gulf of Riga or part of it; (3) Esthonia, facing the Gulf of Finland, and extending toward Petrograd.

Q.—Did the treaty of peace make new boundaries?

A.—Apparently the treaty did not establish any very radically changed boundaries; but, of course, the radical change was that the treaty did accept the principle that Livonia and Esthonia were to be separated from Russia.

Q.—Was Courland not mentioned in the treaty?

A.—No, Courland was not mentioned, but there has long been a custom of referring to all three Baltic Sea Provinces under the general title "Livonia."

Q.—What presumably is the size of the Baltic Sea territory?

A.—The three Baltic Sea provinces—Courland, Livonia and Esthonia—thus separated from Russia, had, under the old subdivision in Russian Government apportionment, an area of 36,000 square miles—that is, they would compare about with Indiana in area. Their population is more dense than Indiana, being about 3 million.

Q.—Is the Dobrudja a Balkan State?

A.—No. It is merely a geographical area. The racial character of its very small population plays no part in the contest over this territory. Its value is due to its position on the Black Sea, and because the great commercial river of Europe, the Danube, empties through the Dobrudja into the Black Sea in a vast system of spreading deltas.

Q.—Just where is the Dobrudja?

A.—It extends along the western part of the Black Sea, from the Bulgarian boundary northward to the mouths of the Danube. It is entirely coastal, and, in a straight line, its Black Sea coast measures about 200 miles. It thus represented the entire Black Sea coast of Roumania.

Q.—Who holds the Dobrudja now?

A.—The Central Powers held it by conquest until early in March, 1918, it having fallen into their hands when they defeated and over-ran Roumania. In March, 1918, the Dobrudja passed to the Central Powers by cession, Roumania having signed a peace with them which gave them this territory as far as the Danube. That means all of it worth having.

Q.—Did the Central Powers assert any right except conquest?

A.—Yes. The pretense was based on the fact that Bulgaria once owned the southern part of the Dobrudja. In the second Balkan War Bulgaria lost this part to Roumania for whom it gave an opening to the Black Sea.

Q.—Does loss of Dobrudja shut Roumania from the Black Sea?

A.—Geographically, it shuts Roumania entirely off from the Black Sea, except for trifling access through part of Dobrudja north of the Danube, which remains to her. The deltas of the Danube make all that territory swampy and difficult. The terms of peace, however, provide that "the Quadruple Alliance will provide and maintain a trade route for Roumania by way of Constanza to the Black Sea." The subsequent cession by Russia of Bessarabia gave Roumania direct access to the Black Sea north of the Danube and the Dobrudja.

Q.—Where is Constanza?

A.—It is the best and biggest port on the Dobrudja Black Sea coast, and is situated about in the middle of that coast line. A railroad connects it with the various important Roumanian places and cities.

Q.—Does the Danube run through Roumania?

A.—Yes. After the Danube leaves the Austria-Hungarian boundary, it runs for a great distance along the Roumanian and Bulgarian boundary (in fact, forming the boundary), and then it swings sharply north through Roumania, running along the western side of the Dobrudja terri-

tory. It runs almost into Russia, but at the northern Roumanian territory it turns sharply eastward and empties in the Black Sea.

Q.—Will Roumania have access to the mouth of the Danube?

A.—She can hardly be shut off from using it, though she may be limited in her enjoyment of it. Under the arrangement that was in force before the war, all that part of the Danube from the deltas to the Roumanian cities of Braila and Galatz was under an international commission (Great Britain, Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Italy, Roumania, Russia and Turkey), which improved and maintained it.

Q.—What altogether did Roumania surrender by the peace treaty?

A.—Besides the Dobrudja, Roumania agreed by the peace treaty of March, 1918, to permit "frontier rectifications" between her boundary and that of Austria-Hungary. More important were far-reaching economical privileges exacted by Germany, among them practical monopoly of the great oil-fields.

Q.—How much area did Roumania take from Bulgaria originally?

A.—Almost 3,000 square miles, with a population of about 300,000, most of whom were Turkish.

Q.—How much population has the whole Dobrudja?

A.—This one of the four historic divisions of Roumania contains about 381,000 people altogether, with Roumanians greatly in the minority. The population is mostly Turkish, Bulgarian, Tartar, Russian, and a fair sprinkling of German.

Q.—Did Roumania sign another treaty of peace?

A.—Yes. A few days after signing a treaty with the Central Powers, Roumania made peace with Russia, promising to evacuate all the occupied parts of Bessarabia, and agreeing that an international commission was to "take up points of conflict between the two countries," which was construed to mean that there was to be a discussion of division of Bessarabian territory.

Q.—What are the facts as to the French claim to Alsace-Lorraine?

A.—Volumes have been written on the tangled historical questions of these two provinces, whose territory has been disputed by rival claimants ever since Roman times.

It would be impossible to summarize fairly the pros and cons, but several facts stand out sharply:

(1) Whatever was the proportion of Teutonic origin of the population when France acquired the territory in the 17th Century, the statement in the last edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* is undoubtedly true: in process of time the people "considered themselves French."

(2) Their representatives in the German Reichstag, after the forcible annexation of 1871, clearly voiced the popular ideals in their protests against the severance from France.

(3) The feeling of the whole civilized world to-day, outside of the nations interested, unquestionably upholds President Wilson's statement that it is a mere act of strict international justice to repair this "wrong done France" by the return of these lost provinces.

Q.—How did Sweden lose Finland?

A.—As a result of many wars with Russia. She was forced to cede the Grand Duchy of Finland to the Czar in 1809. Though Russia had promised to respect the free institutions of the Finns and to let them remain under their constitution, there soon began a series of reactionary changes till at last their constitution was boldly taken away, and they were reduced to a mere subject territory, greatly to their bitter indignation; for the Finns have long been noted for love of freedom and country.

Q.—Does Sweden not want Finland back?

A.—Sweden has sorely felt the humiliation of losing Finland, and the treatment accorded to the Finns has not a little pained the Swedish people, and kept awake their hostility toward Russia. But Sweden always has realized keenly that she herself is quite powerless against her big neighbor, and her governments have tried zealously to keep the peace.

Q.—What religion have the Finns?

A.—Originally, they were pagans of Mongolian affiliations. The Swedes brought them Christianity. At the present time they are mostly Lutherans.

Q.—When did Russia agree to evacuate Finland?

A.—On March 1, 1918, a treaty was signed in Petrograd. Russia agreed to turn over to Finland all claims to territory and property "in the territory bordering on the Arctic Ocean," thus giving Finland all the northern part of Russia adjoining Sweden and containing the ancient Lapland.

Q.—Is Finland a rich commercial territory?

A.—It may not be unusually rich, but it is very much un-exploited, and it contains most of the resources that a country needs for income—forest, agricultural lands, minerals and water-powers. It is about one-quarter again as big as our middle Atlantic States.

These resources have not been left unutilized. Finland has a good system of canals, a reasonably good but very limited system of railroads, a small but profitable industrial system, and some shipping. Behind Finland's life is a traditional love for schools, and there is a very sound educational system, which would have been still better had the Finns been permitted to govern themselves.

Q.—Who sold most to Finland?

A.—Germany did. She led all competitors so far that had it not been for Russian trade (which came next after Germany in volume), Germany would have supplied nearly all of Finland's needs, leaving only a few million dollars for the rest of the world.

Q.—How many people are in Finland?

A.—A little more than 3 million. The Finns are about 2½ million. There are about 338,000 Swedes, 7,000 Russians, 2,000 Germans, and less than 2,000 Lapps.

Q.—Is Bessarabia Arabic?

A.—The name is wholly misleading. It is entirely within European Russian territory. It was Roumanian till 1812, and of its 3 million population about 2 million are considered Roumanian. When the Ukraine declared its separation from Russia, it fell to the Ukrainians, but actually they never had claimed it historically part of their territory. The Bessarabian Assembly voted almost unanimously for union with Roumania and by treaty of May, 1918, the Roumanian-speaking part was ceded.

Q.—Where is Bessarabia?

A.—It is a province of about 17,000 square miles, with about 3 million people, that adjoins the Russian frontier of Roumania, and runs down to the Black Sea. It has a very important coast line on that sea, and Odessa is on its eastern end where the river Dniester empties into the big sea. The fact that the large river runs through Bessarabian territory makes it commercially important. The city of Kishinev is in it.

Q.—Why did we hear so much of Bessarabia?

A.—Partly because through it lay the way to Odessa, and partly because its northern end wedges itself into a corner formed by Roumania and Austrian Bukowina, and Galicia. The inhabitants of this debatable ground are so diverse in their politics and allegiances that the Austrians hoped to gain their support if they could break into Bessarabia.

Q.—Is the Ukraine near Bessarabia?

A.—The western end of the territory claimed by the Ukrainians adjoins Bessarabia. The Austrian operations toward Odessa were conducted through Bessarabia.

Q.—What is the size of Russian Poland?

A.—Present Russian Poland is about 43,000 square miles (almost as large as Pennsylvania), and it has 12 million population, which is 4 million more than Pennsylvania has, despite its big and crowded manufacturing cities.

Q.—Can you state the first German terms at Brest-Litovsk?

A.—The Germans agreed to withdraw their troops from all occupied Russian territory, except "portions of Lithuania, Courland, and portions of Esthonia and Livonia." For these territories it was proposed that a special commission should fix the details of evacuation "in conformity with the Russian idea of the necessary ratification by a plebiscite on broad lines and without any military pressure whatever."

The reason given by the Germans for making special conditions regarding these territories, was that the population had already, through representative bodies, proclaimed separation from Russia.

Q.—What really resulted from the Brest-Litovsk treaty?

A.—Its aim, as revealed by later developments, was clearly to deliver Russia over to German control—through indemnities, through concealed or open military influence, and through exclusive agreements for German capital and industry in Russian development.

More than one far-seeing German has since pointed out that the Imperial Government completely over-reached itself in this greedy and conscienceless pact with traitors to take advantage of the defenseless colossus to the east. As the terms of the treaty were gradually disclosed, and the attitude and methods of the German commanders was brought home to the Russian people, their feeling of relief at the coming of peace turned to a resentment which manifested itself in sullen opposition and assassinations.

Only a few months after the war, the much-acclaimed treaty was being fiercely condemned in Germany itself as having brought neither a real peace on the Eastern front, nor any likelihood of the commercial advantages which were to follow from it.

From the point of view of morality it would be impossible to condemn this shameless compact too strongly. Its every provision betrays the ideal of "booty"—through treachery instead of open conquest.

Q.—Will the Jewish question be dealt with in the Peace Conference?

A.—A principle announced early in the war was "to assert and to enforce the independence of free States, relatively small and weak, against the encroachments and the violence of the strong," and, as the struggle proceeded, this has been assumed to include the liberation of subject peoples. The Jews, however, are in different case from other races. The Czechs, the Poles, the Serbs, the Ruthenians, the Roumanians, live in more or less definite areas, so that their creation into self-governing communities may be possible. The Jews, though, are scattered over the face of the earth; they do not anywhere inhabit territory where they outnumber the peoples of other races in any extended area. There may be, however, a real effort to procure just treatment for Jews everywhere, by laying down principles of just government for minorities everywhere.

Q.—Are there many Jews in Palestine?

A.—Apparently there are not very many left there now, but before the war there were some 80,000. Of these, only 5,000 settled in the country as a result of the Zionist movement. They were supported by contributions from abroad, chiefly from Russia. As funds were cut off as soon as the war broke out their condition was soon deplorable, and many escaped to Egypt.

Q.—How many Jews are there in the world?

A.—That is difficult to estimate, as not every country makes a religious census. There are probably about 13,000,000. More than 6,000,000 live in Russia, more than 2,000,000 in Austria-Hungary, and a few less in the United States. In Australasia there are 19,500; in Canada, 60,000; in South Africa, 40,000; 250,000 in the British Isles. In Germany there are nearly 700,000; in Turkey, outside Palestine, 380,000; in Roumania, 250,000; in Holland, 110,000; and in Morocco about the same. France has 100,000, and Belgium 12,000. In Italy there are 55,000, and in Argentina more than 30,000.

Q.—Who is spiritual head of the Armenian Church?

A.—In the early days the headship was hereditary, and occasionally the "Catholicus" and the King were one and the same. Now, however, the Chief Catholicus is chosen by the Synod of bishops and monks, though, nominally, the choice is made by the Armenian people themselves. The seat of the Catholicus is at Echmiadzin, the convent of Valarshapat, a town in Russian Armenia. There is a rival Catholicus, who has his see at Sic.

Q.—What is the difference between the Syrian and Armenian churches?

A.—In earlier centuries both churches were alike, but long ago the Syrian Christians became members of the Greek Orthodox Church.

Q.—What faith do the Armenians profess?

A.—They are Christians. The Armenian Church is the oldest of all national churches. Tradition credits the evangelization of Armenia to St. Bartholomew and St. Thaddeus. This legend probably was borrowed from Syria, for it is known that in the fourth century parts of the liturgy were read in Syriac throughout Armenia. During the early days of the Armenian Church it appears that many customs of the pre-

Christian priesthood were maintained, such as the sacrifice of animals under the rites of the old Levitical Law.

Q.—Who are the Armenians?

A.—No exact racial status is known. They appear to have been western non-Aryan Asiatics with strong mixture of Assyrian and Hebraic Semites till about 600 B.C., when Persian and Parthian Aryan tribes conquered them. Later Mongols and Tartars came in. Through it all, both before and late into the Christian era, Armenia maintained itself more or less successfully as an independent State. It became Christian at an early date and for many centuries was a bulwark of Christianity. In modern times it became contested territory between Turkey and Russia after Persian control had weakened. The Armenian situation was further aggravated by the furious enmity (largely on religious grounds) between Armenians, Circassians and Kurds. The Congress of Berlin (1878) following the Russo-Turkish war partitioned Armenia between Russia and Turkey.

Q.—What were the Armenian atrocities?

A.—In 1893 a revolutionary movement began in Turkish Armenia. After a year of disorders and desultory fighting, the Sultan sent regular troops and also called on all loyal subjects to suppress the revolts. From spring, 1894, to summer, 1896, massacre followed massacre, the victims being mainly Armenians belonging to the Gregorian branch of the Church, and the perpetrators being chiefly local Moslems aided by Kurds and Circassians. It is estimated that from 25,000 to 30,000 perished. Great Britain, Russia and France intervened, but with little effect, owing to diverging political aims. Armenian revolutionary societies continued their activity until the grant of the Turkish constitution in 1908, and massacres were perpetrated to that time, notably the massacre of Mush (1904) and Van (1908).

Q.—What massacres occurred during the present war?

A.—In 1915 Turkish troops and Kurds fell on the Armenians in Asia Minor, charging conspiracy to aid the advancing Russians. The work was done in a manner and on a scale suggesting a plan to exterminate a population. Thousands were killed or deported, mainly to inhospitable spots where they died from starvation or exposure. Germany, as the ally of Turkey, has been held largely responsible for not preventing the massacres. Some of her own citizens have seconded this charge.

Q.—What is the Sinn Fein?

A.—It is an Irish political group originating in 1903. The name means "For Ourselves," or "For Ourselves Alone," in Gaelic, and the movement was originally a group of poets, philosophers and workers enthusiastic for the revival of the Gaelic language and literature, and Irish industries in Ireland. Later they became more revolutionary, advocating an Irish national bank, an Irish merchant marine, and Irish consular service—Irish autonomy, in fact—and opposing Irish taxation by England, emigration, and recruiting for the British Army. This Sinn Fein party joined with Sir Roger Casement in the Irish Rebellion of 1916, and a Sinn Feiner poet, Padraic Pearce, was named as first president of the short-lived Irish Republic. Pearce, Thomas MacDonagh, Joseph Plunkett and other Sinn Fein leaders were executed as traitors in the London Tower in May, 1916, as was also Sir Roger Casement.

Q.—How is the word pronounced?

A.—It is pronounced "shin fane."

Q.—What is the Home Rule question?

A.—It is a demand by Ireland for its own separate political government, with its own Parliament sitting in Ireland. The government of Ireland has never satisfied the Irish. In protest against it, as well as against the conditions of life from which the Irish have suffered, there have been repeated political, educational, and revolutionary movements. The modern history of the problem began about 1880, with Charles Stewart Parnell as spokesman for the Irish, demanding reform of land tenure and home rule.

William E. Gladstone was the first great British statesman to accept the idea of home rule, but no measure to accomplish it was passed until 1914, and this law was at once suspended for the duration of the war. A fundamental difficulty in adjusting a basis for home rule is the existence of two groups in Ireland, which have been mutually distrustful: (1) the Irish, who are mostly Catholic, and generally live in the country; and (2) the Protestant Ulstermen, who are mostly of British blood, live in northern Ireland, own property, and direct the city life and manufactures.

Q.—What parties lead in Ireland?

A.—(1) The Ulster Unionists in northern Ireland, who demand close connections with England, and fear the control of Ireland by the Catholic Irish; (2) the Irish Nationalists, who comprise the bulk of the population, and have long maintained a compact group of representatives in Parliament, desiring home rule, but more or less supporting the present war under the leadership of John Redmond till his death in 1918; (3) a middle group, drawing away from both of these and desiring a friendly accommodation of differences; (4) the Sinn Fein, extreme nationalists, demanding immediate and entire independence.

Q.—Did the Austrians make peace with Montenegro or not?

A.—They made a sort of arrangement, not with the king, but with two members of the Montenegrin Cabinet they found in Cettinje, General Becer and Major Lampar. By that time, however, many Montenegrins had fled into Albania, and those remaining were presumably not very hostile to the Austrians. The conditions imposed were that all arms had to be given up except those of the Montenegrins who were to assist in the policing of the country. The people were to lend all possible assistance to the Austro-Hungarian forces by furnishing them with food and water, means of transportation and housing, but they were not to be required to enter the territory of their conquerors. The 3,000 Austrian soldiers who had been captured by the Montenegrins were released.

Q.—Why did Greece stay out of the war so long?

A.—It was the influence of the former King Constantine, whose wife, Queen Sophia, is a sister of the German Kaiser, which prevented the expression of the people's sympathy with the Entente.

After Constantine's deposition, as a result of the Allied ultimatum in January, 1917, documents and telegrams came to light showing that Queen Sophia was constantly urging her Imperial brother to send an army to their relief against those "infamous swine" the Allies; that both rulers were in correspondence with the German military leaders, transmitting to them facts as to the Allied forces, planning a sudden attack on Sarrail's army, plotting for the destruction of Greek artillery when they saw the case was hopeless.

The various premiers who succeeded Venizelos were mere tools in these secret Hohenzollern intrigues.

As the new Greek Minister to the United States expressed it in September, 1917, it was the "assistance of the protecting powers" which made the Hellenic people "free masters of their own destinies."

Q.—Why did the Balkan Allies fight among themselves?

A.—The League of Balkan States had been inspired only by one common purpose—that of driving Turkey out of the Balkans. In everything else they were hostile. Serb hated Bulgar, and Bulgar hated Greek, and Greek did not much love either. When the extraordinary victory had come, and Turkey's whole Balkan possessions (especially Macedonia) lay in their hands, they immediately became furiously jealous of each other. Serbia refused to withdraw her troops from Central Macedonia, which the Serb-Bulgar pre-war treaty had marked out for Bulgaria. Bulgarians and Greeks raced headlong to seize desired portions of eastern Macedonia. The Greeks had already snatched Saloniki, and, while Bulgaria still was fighting the main Turkish Army at Adrianople, they took more cities and territory on the sea-coast of Macedonia near Saloniki.

Q.—Who began the second Balkan War?

A.—Bulgaria did. She began it, indeed, without a formal declaration, and struck suddenly, according to the charges made against her by Greece and Serbia. But there had been sporadic fighting between the various troops occupying contested points for some months. Bulgaria had, without doubt, done the big part of the fighting against Turkey. While Greece, Serbia and Montenegro had been defeating Turkish troops within the Balkans, and particularly within Macedonia, Bulgaria had held off the real Turkish Army, and had almost succeeded in striking at Constantinople. Flushed with her triumphs, and furious at the seizure of Macedonian territory, which she declared had been agreed should be hers, Bulgaria insisted on the pre-war pledges being made good instantly, and declared war as the alternative. To sum up: Whatever was the truth as to the conflicting claims, Bulgaria was as greedy then, as she showed herself later on, and was so "cocky" over her great prowess in war that she acted with insufferable arrogance toward her former Allies.

Q.—Who has the best claims to Macedonia?

A.—The secret treaty between Serbia and Bulgaria certainly guaranteed Bulgarian possession of Central Macedonia. There is no doubt about that. It has never been denied. That Central Macedonia is inhabited largely by Bulgarian peoples also is too well known historically to be seriously questioned. The whole history of revolts against Turkey through centuries has had, as one of its chief springs of action, the burning passion of the Bulgars to liberate brother Bulgars in Macedonia from Turkish rule. But no human being, however gifted, can draw lines on the Balkan map and say, "Here and here dwell such and such nationalities." The races are too intricately mixed—and they are not friends.

Q.—Would a just settlement divide the Balkans over again?

A.—If an international congress were to meet with the purest will to effect a "just settlement," and if it were to call in all the ethnological and other experts in the world, it would probably find it impossible to make a "just settlement" on the basis of dividing the contested Balkan territories among Greece, Serbia, and Bulgaria. Those three States might, conceivably, be satisfied; but, in the divided territories, there would remain villages and districts wholly, bitterly unreconciled. It might be possible (though excessively difficult) to so arrange it that the unreconciled people would be only minorities—but it is the oppressed minorities that are making a good part of the big trouble just now over the question of "small nationalities."

Q.—When did Greece begin to make herself felt in the conflict?

A.—Under the new régime the army, formerly controlled by the royal, pro-German intriguers, was reorganized and mobilized in its full strength; and in September, 1918, the long-expected forward movement in Macedonia began. The Serbians swept forward irresistibly against the Bulgarian lines, accompanied by French and Greek divisions; and General d'Esperey, the commander-in-chief, wired the Hellenic Government that the Greek troops had covered themselves with glory in this blow which shattered the Bulgar defenses.

Meanwhile other Greek forces were attacking with the British in the difficult Lake Doiran region, where the fighting was most furious, and their enthusiasm and gallantry was a feature of the assault which impressed all the eye-witnesses.

Q.—Was there a South African revolt against England early in the war?

A.—Yes. De Wet, the famous Boer leader, in October, 1914, raised the standard of revolt with some five or six thousand Boers. By December 1, De Wet was a prisoner, and his army dispersed and captured by Boer forces, led by De Smuts. Louis Botha, a Boer leader, was Prime Minister at the time, and maintained the adherence of the Colony to the British Empire.

Q.—How has Great Britain treated annexed nationalities?

A.—In October, 1914, Field Marshal Earl Roberts made the following statement:

"In India, which is, to some extent, under the control of the British Parliament, such good work has been done for the development of the country, there is such security for life and property, such respect and toleration for the religious and social customs of the people, that impartial observers of all nations have united in a chorus of unstinted praise of British rule in India. Russian, French, and German writers who have been in India have, in turn, paid tribute to the sympathy, tolerance, prudence, and benevolence of our rule.

"Nor is there any sign that British administrators are tiring of their task, or likely to fail in bearing 'the white man's burden.' In each new dependency which comes under our care, young men, fresh from the public schools of Britain, come eagerly forward to carry on the high traditions of Imperial Britain. We have only to look at the work done recently in Nigeria, in the Sudan, in Rhodesia, and in British East Africa, to see that as a race the British are, if anything, more capable than ever of carrying on the work of Empire."

This view is surely confirmed by the records of Britain's colonies in this war.

Q.—Does Great Britain possess all of India?

A.—Practically, yes. Accurately speaking, no. As defined by Parliamentary enactments, the Indian Empire comprises all that part of the Indian peninsula directly or indirectly under British rule or protection. This would leave out such

territories as the big Himalayan kingdom Nepal (54,000 square miles), which has an independent ruler (Maharajadhiraja). However, there is a British resident and the whole vast peninsula is considered British in the popular sense. There still remain limited territories that do not belong to the British Empire. Portugal owns Goa on the Malabar coast, Damao about 100 miles north of Bombay and a small island west of Damao (Diu), about 1,600 square miles altogether. France still possesses Pondicherry, about 196 square miles.

Q.—How did Great Britain obtain India?

A.—Mainly through the operations of one of the most extraordinary commercial organizations that ever existed—the famous British East India Company, which was the offspring of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading into the East Indies," a corporation authorized in 1600 by Queen Elizabeth. It made the first commercial settlement in India in 1621, after having about 10 years before defeated the Portuguese settlers who were there before them. The British East India Company, though technically only a private stock company of merchants, wielded many of the powers of a strong national government, even to the extent of maintaining an enlisted army, granting commissions and making war.

Q.—Does the British East India Company still rule India?

A.—No. In 1784 Parliament passed the first of many laws that gradually curbed and minimized its powers. After the great Indian Mutiny the entire administration of India passed to the British crown (in 1858).

Q.—What was India when the British came in?

A.—It was a country divided into innumerable governments whose rulers were practically independent masters, though some acknowledged the suzerainty of a central ruler, the Grand Mogul in Delhi. Some of the rulers were Hindu, some were Moslem, other governments were mixed. Besides the Portuguese, the French were there before the British came in. The French and British fought from about 1700 to 1761, when the British won a great final victory (the famous Battle of Pondicherry), which reduced French occupation to a merely tolerated hold on a strip of seacoast.

Q.—How is India ruled now?

A.—By a "Governor-General and Viceroy," appointed by the British Crown. He holds office for 5 years, and has supreme civil and military control with an executive council of a somewhat indeterminate number of members, mostly appointed by the Crown or otherwise selected in such a way that the government shall always have a majority of at least three.

Under this central government are the central departments; and besides this great, widespread central administration are the very large and elaborate governments of the 15 Provinces, each with a Governor and a Council or a "Resident." Under these again is the immense local machinery of government—the Districts within the Provinces. There are 267 of these District governments. The districts again are parcelled out into lesser units, under British officials, magistrates, or deputy collectors.

Q.—What are the Native Princes?

A.—They are the native (mostly hereditary) rulers of the 700 native States which range in importance from areas containing merely a few villages, to such great domains as Hyderabad, which covers 82,000 square miles and has more than 13 millions population.

Q.—Are the Native Princes independent?

A.—Their powers vary widely. Almost each one is in special case by himself. All govern under political supervision of a British resident or agent. None of the Princes has the right to make war or peace, or to maintain any military force above a specified limit. No European may reside at any of the Courts without British sanction. In case of misgovernment, the British Indian Government can exercise any desired degree of control.

Q.—Are the Indian people Aryans?

A.—Many are, but the population as a whole is composed of widely differing racial stocks, quite distinct from each other in blood and language. Ethnologists recognize four very clearly marked divisions: the Aryan or Sanskrit-speaking race; the non-Aryan tribes or aborigines of the country; a very huge mixed population which has grown out of a fusion of the two previous elements; and the Mohammedan invaders from the northwest. "These four elements, however," says the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, "have become inextricably mixed together, some predominating in one portion of the country, some in another, while all are found in every province and native state. The

chief modern divisions of the population, therefore, do not follow the lines of blood and language, but of religion and caste." The oldest known racial stocks are the wild tribes of Central India, known as Bhils and Gonds, who number over ten million.

Q.—Do all the native opponents of British rule want independence?

A.—No. Their desires are wonderfully various. Some demand merely an apportionment of the better paid public offices among the natives; others want simply social equality; and still others would be content with such reforms as a purely Indian fiscal system, etc. The more ardent ones demand a very large measure of genuine autonomy, and some want complete independence, and are willing even to resort to arms. These are a minority.

Q.—Did Indian unrest prevent Indian assistance in the war?

A.—The amount of assistance from India was astonishingly great. Besides very large voluntary money contributions from native rulers personally, there were heavy contributions of men and equipment. More than one and a quarter million troops were sent to fight for England on the various fronts.

Q.—What were the India revolt plots?

A.—Almost as soon as the great war began natives of India in this country, who long had been protesting against British rule in India, began propaganda and engaged in activities which the great secret service system in this country fought hard to prevent. The U. S. Government indicted about thirty men, among them several German consular officials and others, the rest mostly East Indians, for "fomenting a revolution against a friendly power." They were put on trial in San Francisco and found guilty.

A great deal of money was spent in the agitation, and it had ramifications in China, South America, the West Indies, Central America, and throughout Asia.

Q.—Is India governed well on the whole?

A.—In "Modern and Contemporary European History," by J. Salwyn Schapiro, Associate Professor of History in the College of the City of New York, under editorship of James T. Shotwell, Professor of History in Columbia University (published August, 1918), the verdict is: "Although heavily taxed and arbitrarily governed, India has derived undoubted benefits from British rule. It has brought internal peace to a land once distracted by tribal wars, established an enlightened civil and criminal code, and abolished barbarous practices, such as the suttee, or the self-immolation of a widow on the funeral pile of her husband."

Q.—What are the causes of Indian famines?

A.—They are given as shortage of rainfall, with resulting droughts due to the lack of sufficiently extensive water-storage systems. This seems to be one of the very big reasons for periodical famines. Students and experts have often stated that in many famine years there had been a heavy rainfall, but it had occurred at the wrong time, and the water, of course, had gone to waste.

Over-population is given as another reason. The critics of the government, however, point to the fact that population statistics, figured to the square mile of national areas, show that European countries have a denser population than India. The revolutionaries say that the true cause is the poverty of the people, which prevents them from having any reserve for time of need.

Q.—How does the government relieve famine?

A.—Enormous irrigation works have been built and more are being created all the time as part of the British relief works. This work of the British in famine relief has been praised by practically every observer, even by zealous critics of the British in other respects. Lajpat Rai, one of the most pronounced opponents of English rule in India, who has been exiled because of his agitations, says that this work of the English deserves ungrudging praise. They have reduced it to a science and a small army of splendid men give up their lives to it, and very often cut short their lives by their zealous labors. The system includes the undertaking of all sorts of great enterprises to provide wages, such as the building of railroads, dams and bridges, cutting of canals, opening of agricultural banks, etc. Relief camps are opened under alert officials and everything possible is done to bring food and means of earning it to the afflicted districts.

Q.—Do famines in India occur often?

A.—William Digby, in "Prosperous British India," gives the following table, showing famines to 1900:

Eleventh century, two famines, both local; thirteenth century, one famine around Delhi, local; fourteenth century, three famines, all local; fifteenth century, two famines, both local; sixteenth century, three famines, all local; seventeenth century, three famines, area not defined; the eighteenth century (1769-1800), four famines, Bengal, Madras, Bombay and southern India.

Famines of the nineteenth century and loss of life thereby, divided into four periods of 25 years:

1800-1825, five famines, approximately 1,000,000 deaths; 1826-1850, two famines, approximately 500,000 deaths; 1851-1875, six famines, recorded 5,000,000 deaths; 1876-1900, eighteen famines, estimated 26,000,000 deaths.

Q.—What salaries do Indian officials get now?

A.—The Viceroy of India (full title Viceroy and Governor-General) gets $83,000 a year. There also is a list of large allowances for various purposes. The members of the Viceroy's Council get $16,000 each. The Governors of the Provinces get the following salaries: Madras, $39,000; Bengal, $39,000; Agra and Oudh, $33,000; Punjab, $33,000; Burma, $33,000; Bihar and Orissa, $33,000; Central Provinces and Berar, $20,000; Assam, $19,800; Northwest Frontier, $16,000; Ajmer-Merwara, $16,000; Coorg, $16,000; Beluchistan, $16,000; Delhi, $12,000; Andaman and Nicobar Islands, $12,000. Total for heads of government (exclusive of Council members, of whom there are some 14), $420,800.

Q.—Are many natives in the government?

A.—Practically all the high offices are held by Englishmen. Of the offices that have salaries down to $300 a year, most are held by natives. Thus the actual English governing class is very small, it being estimated that the important offices are held by less than 6,500 English, who succeed by a triumph of administrative machinery in ruling 300 millions native people.

Q.—Have Constitutional Reforms been recommended for India?

A.—During this war the Secretary of State for India (who with an appointive Council has the administration in England of the Indian Empire) visited India, and as a result a report was made recommending far-reaching constitutional reforms. The important basis for them was an extension and development of Provincial and other local self-government. The chief recommendations were:

(1) Completion of the edifice of local self-government.

(2) A considerable measure of responsibility in various fields to the Provincial Legislatures, which are to be mainly composed of directly elected representatives, with as wide a franchise as possible under Indian conditions.

(3) The Viceregal Legislature to be dualized, the Second Chamber being called the Council of State.

(4) Machinery for periodic inquiry whether further subjects can be transferred to popular control.

(5) Creating a select committee of the House of Commons on Indian affairs.

(6) An inquiry into the constitution and operation of the Secretary of State's Council and the India Office.

(7) Creation of an Indian Privy Council and a Council of Princes.

RESTLESS RUSSIA

Q.—What did the Russian peace treaty pretend to effect?

A.—It was signed at Brest-Litovsk in the first few days of March, 1918. A certain territory "lying west of the line agreed on" was declared as no longer under Russian sovereignty. The line was not described in the treaty, but was understood to be the demarcation for new Poland, Lithuania, and the Ukraine.

The boundaries of the States of Esthonia and Livonia were specifically arranged. Russia undertook to make peace with the Ukraine People's Republic, and to recognize the peace treaty between the Ukraine and the Central Powers. Finland and the Aland Island were to be evacuated by Russia at once, and Persian and Afghanistan integrity and independence were to be respected by both sides. Russia was to evacuate Asiatic Turkey occupied by her troops, and Erivan, Kars and Batoum (the oil and manganese regions) in the Caucasus.

Q.—Could Germany get rich out of Russia alone?

A.—If a coalition of all other nations obliged Germany to depend on Russia alone as an outlet for her commerce and industry, she would have a field which may be described as follows: European Russia (without counting Poland) is almost exactly two-thirds of the area of the United States, and it has 30 million more people than we have.

Yet this big territory, with its bigger population than ours, imports only one-quarter of what we import—and we are a great producing nation, manufacturing heavily for our own consumption, while Russia needs goods from outside if she is to assume a big place in modern industry.

Even at that low figure, however, the world's imports into Russia were about one-fifth the amount of Germany's entire annual export trade to the whole world before the war.

It would appear that, with a free hand to industrialize Russia swiftly, expand railroads, etc., Germany might reasonably expect, in a very small number of years, to draw nearly as much wealth from her neighbor as she does now from the whole world.

Q.—How much of Russia's total imports did Germany have?

A.—Before the war she had about one-half of the total import business of Russia. England came next, but very far behind. We came third, and a very bad third. Then came France and Austria-Hungary.

Q.—What did Russia import mostly?

A.—Machinery and woolens from Germany, machinery and coal from England, and raw cotton from us.

Q.—How much machinery did Russia import?

A.—About 85 million dollars' worth. Germany's whole exports of machinery are about 300 million dollars' worth normally. Russia could possibly absorb all that if she were industrialized on a scale at all commensurate with her possibilities.

Q.—Could the Central Powers and Russia exist by themselves?

A.—There is one great staple of modern commercial life which they could not produce within their own territories in sufficient amount, whatever else they might manage to do. They depend on the outer world for enough cotton. At present their only adequate supply comes from us and from Egypt, with some from India.

The trans-Caucasus, Russian Central Asia and Turkey put together produce only about one-sixteenth of the production of our southern States. While the Turkish production seems to be increasing steadily, it is obvious that the supply would fall ever so far short of requirements for many years to come.

Q.—How do Russia's railroads compare with others?

A.—Russia (counting European Russia alone) has 36,000 miles of railroad. To have as many, proportionately, as we have, she should have 176,000 miles. As it is, she has less railroads than Germany, though more than half a dozen Germanies could be stuck away in Russia.

Q.—Did Russia cede the Caucasus territories to Germany in the peace treaty?

A.—The word "cession" was not used. Russia simply agreed to evacuate the "districts of Erivan, Kars and Batoum," and not to "interfere in the reorganization of the constitutional or international condition of these districts, but leave it to the populations to carry out the reorganization in agreement with the neighboring States, particularly Turkey."

Q.—Did this clause cover the whole Caucasus?

A.—No. It covered only that portion of the Caucasus immediately adjoining Turkey on the eastern Black Sea coast. It is, indeed, a part that was Turkish until Russian conquest of the Caucasus made it Russian. Geographically, it is small, being only 20,000 square miles (about half the size of New York State), whereas that whole region of the trans-Caucasus (the formerly Turkish Caucasus south of the Caucasus Mountains) is 95,000 square miles. But in wealth it is of tremendous importance.

Q.—Is Batoum the richest oil-field in Russia?

A.—No. Batoum is the pipe-line terminus and the shipping port for some of the richest oil-fields in the world, but the trans-Caucasus province that is the big oil-producer is on the other side of the Caucasian peninsula—the province of Baku on the Caspian Sea, which nominally remained to Russia.

The oil-fields in the region generally are, however, quite rich enough to be a tempting and valuable prize. But there is another still greater value to the Germans in control of Batoum and Kars. Batoum and a neighboring city named Poti are the seaport points for what probably are the richest manganese deposits in the world. This district produced almost one-third of all the manganese obtained in 1913. What this means to Germany's iron and steel industry is clear.

Q.—Has the Batoum region coal and minerals?

A.—It has copper and coal. It is said that one mine alone, very inadequately worked now, has been examined by experts who estimate that it has deposits of probably 1½ million tons of ore that runs about twice as rich as American ore does. There also is asphalt and rock salt in the region.

Q.—Is Russia overwhelmingly important to the world's oil supply?

A.—In 1900 Russia produced thirty-one per cent of the oil of the world, but owing to the slackening of the Baku output, this percentage, of course, has decreased heavily. The true wealth of the Russian oil-supplies has hardly been touched, it is said.

Q.—Are the Russian peasants very poor?

A.—There are large districts where, it is said, the average annual expenditure of a peasant on all his needs is not more than 20 roubles ($10) a year! Even this tiny sum cannot all be spent on himself. He must buy implements out of it. make repairs, etc.,—if he can. In one district of 28,000 of these small peasant farms, 10,000 do not own a single horse between them, and the 10,000 farms together do not own fifty modern agricultural machines.

Q.—Was there a Russian republic once?

A.—In the city of Novgorod, south from Petrograd, is a monument erected in 1862 to commemorate the 1,000th anniversary of the founding of that city. Incidentally, it commemorates a Russian republic which held its own for many centuries.

The people of Novgorod (who probably descended from Danish sea-rovers under Rurik) obtained a charter from their Prince, Yaroslav, and after about a century of this semi-free existence, they elected their own Princes through a popular assembly or council called the vyache. The vyache soon became the real ruler, and thrust the Princes out whenever they failed to please. In 1120 they decided to do without Princes altogether, and after that were governed by their vyache. By the fourteenth century the community (which consisted mostly of powerful merchants) had become so great that it included other large towns, such as Pskov. They fought Swedes and Germans successfully, and, with the help of the Lithuanians, beat back the invasion of the Princes of Moscow several times. In about 1475, however, they were overcome and Ivan III of Moscow took away their charter. In 1570 Ivan IV (Ivan the Terrible) subjugated them entirely, massacring 15,000 or, as some accounts have it, 60,000.

Q.—What did the Russian Revolutionists want?

A.—After the abdication of the Czar, the Provisional Revolutionary Government announced the following principles: (1) Amnesty for all political and religious offenses; (2) freedom of speech, press, association, labor, right to strike, and extension of these liberties to troops so far as conditions permit; (3) abolition of all social, religious and national restrictions; (4) summoning of a constituent assembly; (5) substitution for the police of a national militia with elective heads; (6) communal election with universal suffrage; (7) troops that participated in revolution not to be disarmed, but not to leave Petrograd; (8) severe military discipline in active service, but all restrictions on soldiers in enjoyment of social rights granted to other citizens to be abolished.

Q.—Who formed the first Russian Provisional Government?

A.—Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior, Prince George Lvoff; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Paul Miliukoff; Ministers of War and Marine, Alexander Guchkoff; Minister of Finance, Michael Tereshchenko; Minister of Justice, Alexander Kerensky; Procurator of the Holy Synod, Vladimir Lvoff.

Q.—Was the Provisional Government recognized by the Allies?

A.—It was recognized quite promptly by all the Allies, by most of the neutral nations, and by the United States, which was not then at war with Germany, but was fast moving toward it.

Q.—Who are the Bolsheviki?

A.—They are Russian Socialist Democrats. They are not a new party, but, on the contrary, one of the older political factions of Russia. The men who now call themselves Bolsheviki were originally the very radical element of the Russian Socialist Democratic party, representing, in a broad way, the political principle that the proletariat must rule, and that the fight of the proletariat is not merely against an autocratic government, but that it is also against the middle class—the class that, wishing to cling to its own possessions, even though these might be meager, must necessarily always oppose the proletariat's demand for communal ownership.

Q.—Why are they called Bolsheviki?

A.—In 1905 there was a great split in the party, and the Radicals, then under the leadership of Nikolai Lenine, found themselves in the majority. They demanded an immediate effort to secure a maximum of the party's program, and were, therefore, christened "Bolsheviki"—the men who want more—or Maximalists. Their more moderate opponents became known as "Mensheviki"—those who demand less—or Minimalists. The name seems to have had nothing to do with the fact that these "root-and-branch" partisans controlled a majority of the Socialist Democratic party. They might be in a minority there, and among the Russian people as a whole, yet still be Bolsheviki.

The present Bolsheviki party is composed not only of the original faction, but also of the radical faction of the Peasants' Social Revolutionary party, which joined the Bolsheviki in 1917.

Q.—Were the Bolsheviki backed by the people generally?

A.—They showed quite surprising popular strength for a considerable time. At the third All-Russian Conference of Councils of Workmen's and Soldiers' and Peasants' Delegates, which was held in Petrograd during the end of January, 1918, the opposition to Bolsheviki rule was so weak, both in numbers and in spirit, that it was almost negligible. This was unexpected, since this conference was attended by men who, under the Soviet or Local Council systems of Russia, might be supposed to represent the people very directly, and it had been believed that they would have marked differences of opinion with the radical Petrograd Socialists.

Q.—Did the Soviets support the Bolsheviki peace with Germany?

A.—The All-Russian Congress of Soviets, assembled in Moscow to act on the peace treaty submitted by Lenine, consisted of 1,164 delegates, soldiers, sailors and peasants being in the majority. The assembly voted overwhelmingly to accept the treaty, though voicing its unrelenting enmity toward the German military and capitalistic government.

Q.—What is Lenine's political creed?

A.—Nikolai Lenine's creed apparently remains the one he has preached all his

life—the Proletarian Revolution. This is unlike the socialism of the men under Kerensky, who fought for a general socialism. The Lenine school holds that the class struggle must be fought out first, and that the undermost class is the more numerous, and must, therefore, be placed on top. In following out this idea to practical issues, he holds that the land question is the foundation of all poverty in Russia and that, therefore, it must be solved first. The solution, as he sees it, is to proceed to immediate and complete appropriation of all privately owned land.

Q.—How much privately owned land is there in Russia?

A.—Lenine said recently that of 297,000,000 acres in the hands of private proprietors, 21,000,000 acres alone were owned by a so-called "Department of Appanages," really a little group of Romanoff Grand Dukes. One such family, he said, owns more land than is possessed by half a million average peasant families. He enumerates 924 rich families in Russia which hold 27,000 acres each.

Q.—Is not much land owned by peasants?

A.—One of the declarations of the Bolsheviki political principles is that there are about several million of men of the peasant class, known as Zazhtochnii (rich peasants), who gamble in land, hold it for debt, etc., and starve the poor peasants. These oppressive bourgeois peasants were under the Bolsheviki ban like the great land-owners.

Q.—Is Russia a true Slav State?

A.—A majority of the population is Slav, but Russia is by no means a completely Slav State. The race mixture is as remarkable as that in Austria-Hungary. Of the 132,000,000 population of European Russia in 1915, 92,000,000 were Slavs, 12,000,000 were Asiatic Tartars, 5,500,000 were Finns (akin to the Magyars of Hungary), 5,000,000 were Jews, 3,000,000 were of Latin and Germanic stock, and 3,000,000 Lithuanians.

Q.—What races inhabit Russia?

A.—Slavs, Lithuanians, Letts, Semites (Jews), Poles, Greeks, Swedes, Roumanians, Armenians, Persians, Kurds, Gypsies, Esthonians, Finns, Lapps, Samoyedes, Tartars, Bashkirs, Turks, Kirghiz, Uzbegs, Yakuts, Kalmucks, Georgians, Circassians, and Caucasians (natives of the Caucasus).

Q.—What was Russia originally?

A.—Originally, the huge territory in eastern Europe now covered by Russia, was divided among separate tribes and nationalities, which had nothing in common. Thus, at the death of Charlemagne (814 A.D.), when the empires of western Europe had attained splendor and a decidedly high civilization, the Russian territory was practically without any connection or communication with that western civilization. The Baltic coast was held by a Lettish race, who formed a state there called Esthonia. The west and center of the area was known as Slavonia, and the greater part of the Black Sea coast, and the land reaching well toward the north of Russia on the Asian boundary, was held by the very powerful Kingdom of the Khazars, who were Tartars.

Q.—What is the Russian Holy Synod?

A.—It is the supreme organ of government of the orthodox church in Russia. It was established in 1721, and, during the Czardom, was presided over by a lay procurator representing the Czar. The other members of the Holy Synod were the three "Metropolitans" of Moscow, St. Petersburg and Kiev, the Archbishop of Georgia, and a number of bishops sitting in rotation.

Q.—Are all Russians members of the Greek Catholic Church?

A.—In 1905 an estimate was made that of 140,000,000 Christians of various sects, about 87,000,000 were members of the orthodox or Russian State Church.

Q.—What are the other chief religions in Russia?

A.—Of the population (estimated at from 160 to 180 millions) living in all the Russian Empire, an area about 2¾ times as big as the United States, about fifteen million are Mohammedans, Buddhists, or other non-Christians, about five million are of Jewish faith, and one hundred and forty million are of the various sects of the Christian religion.

Q.—What does "bourgeois" mean?

A.—The word means literally "burgher," or the burgher class—that is, the prosperous middle class of Europe. It became a term of opprobrium during the French Revolution, when the middle classes, which themselves had suffered under the tyrannical rule of the monarch-

ical aristocracy, became frightened by the excesses of the lower classes, and in their desire for orderly government leaned toward restoration of the monarchy—or were suspected of doing so.

Q.—What do the Russians mean by "bourgeois"?

A.—In Russia the term is now applied to everybody whose interests and leanings differ from those of the masses. All such persons are accused of capitalistic sympathies, and are under suspicion by the radical groups. The effect is to class among the bourgeois many so-called intellectuals and more moderate liberals, to whom, as a matter of fact, the first success of the revolution largely was due. It was because of his alignment with this class that Professor Milyukoff lost standing with the radical revolutionaries.

Q.—Would not the bourgeois be likely to cling to republicanism?

A.—The Bolsheviki fear and believe that the "bourgeois" element of the entire world (and perhaps Russia in particular, because Russian political ambition is extraordinarily small among the middle class) would be guided mainly by the class-desire for an "orderly" government beyond everything else. Business, trade, money-earning, money-making—these are wholly natural (and not in themselves blameable) purposes of the great middle classes of the world. Radical reformers, who profess themselves willing to suffer privations, or die for their beliefs, declare that the bourgeois would not be willing to suffer for a great ideal reform, but would weaken and turn to any powerful party that might assure them of quiet and peace.

Q.—Are there separate governments in Russia?

A.—Yes, and there always have been, though most of them were simply little autocracies, ruled by governors who represented Petrograd. There are 78 of these local government divisions, and 50 of them are in Russia proper. The local affairs (parish affairs) are in the hands of peasants' committees. Under the revolutionary government there were about 17,000 of these parishes or cantons.

Q.—What is meant by zemstvos?

A.—They are an old form of assemblies elected for each district. A Russian district corresponds in a general way to a county. Zemstvos were elected by a restricted vote, and were purely deliberative local bodies with closely circumscribed rights and duties. Their importance and efficiency differed greatly in various parts of the country, but, as a whole, they did good work. Undoubtedly they spread the popular desire for self-government, and afforded practical experience of it.

Q.—Did the zemstvos meet during the war?

A.—Prince George Lvoff, first premier of the provisional government, later denounced and dismissed, was a strong believer and supporter of the zemstvos. It was due primarily to his efforts that a voluntary council of all zemstvos was formed under his leadership during the darkest period of Russia's defeats by the armies of the Central Powers. This voluntary body was chiefly responsible for the improved supply of food, munitions, and medical aid to the forces at the front when the incompetency and corruption of the established government were discovered.

The fiftieth anniversary of the zemstvos was in the year before the great war began (1913).

Q.—Did the zemstvos rule cities also?

A.—No. They are local elective assemblies for the population dwelling outside the towns. Established in 1864, they were of two sorts—*cantonal*, in which even peasants had a limited representation, and *provincial*, composed of delegates elected from the cantonal zemstvos; they were to meet annually, and exercise large powers in relation to education, public health, roads, etc. In 1890 their powers were greatly restricted, but in 1905 they regained much of the initiative which they had lost. The rôle of the congress of zemstvos, composed of leading members of the local bodies, who in November, 1904, and June, 1905, assembled at Petrograd, has often been compared to that of the Assembly of Notables in the French Revolution.

Q.—What is the Duma?

A.—A Russian Parliament or Congress created under the old régime. It was an elective body representing the people at large, and was created August 6, 1905, as a result of a popular uprising. In October, 1905, it received guarantees of freedom of speech, conscience, assembly, and association, and of inviolability of the per-

son. These guarantees, however, were not kept by the Government.

At the same time the body then known as the Council of the Empire was made a legislative council and became the upper house of Russia's Parliament.

Q.—What was the term of a Duma?

A.—Constitutionally, the members of the Duma were elected for a term of five years. The first and second Dumas, however, lasted only a few weeks each. The third Duma completed its term. The fourth Duma, elected in November, 1912, was in session at the outbreak of the revolution, and, though not actually a prime factor in its inception, was sympathetic toward it, and was a means through which anarchy was avoided.

Q.—How were Duma members elected?

A.—By a process which is, perhaps, the most complicated in the world. The original manifesto that brought the Duma into being was altered by Imperial ukase in 1907, it having been found that under the original arrangement the Cadet party—the Constitutional Democrats, which included the Socialists and exiles returned to Russia when the constitution was promised in 1905—was in overwhelming strength. The Cadets were so obnoxious to the government that the first Duma was dissolved at once. When the Cadets proved again to be in great majority in the second, it was resolved to alter the electoral law, so that representation should be more conservative. The members from Siberia, the Caucasus and Poland were reduced from 89 to 39, the Central Asian Steppes were disfranchised altogether (they had before this sent 23 members), and the number of representatives in all was reduced from 524 to 442. The members were to be elected by a complicated system of electoral colleges which could be, and were, so manipulated as to leave the power in the hands of the bureaucracy and landed proprietors.

Q.—Had the Duma much power?

A.—According to the constitution it had very little. It was allowed to have nothing to do with the army or navy. Legislation was in the hands of Ministers, who were responsible not to the Duma, but to the Czar. Members might originate legislation, but not until it had the approval of the Minister of the Department concerned. If, by a two-thirds majority, the Duma arraigned the action of a Minister, the President of the Imperial Council laid the case before the Czar, who decided the matter. The Duma had little real power over finance, more than half the annual expenditure of the country in times of peace being entirely outside the control of Parliament. Ministers could and did impose taxation without consulting the Duma at all, for when it was not sitting the Czar had the power to issue ordinances having the force of law. He had also the power of dissolving the Duma or proroguing it whenever he liked. Despite this, the Duma, during its last three or four years, established its position so well that it was beginning to take a larger share in public affairs, and began to brook no curbing. The Council of Soldiers' and Workers' representatives assumed superior power soon after the revolution.

Q.—Were workmen represented in the Duma?

A.—They were specially treated. Every industrial concern employing fifty workers or more, elected one or more delegates to the electoral college of the particular government in which it was situated. If it were not for the provision that at least one Duma member must be chosen in each government from each of the five classes represented in the college, it is obvious that the progressive elements would not have had any representation at all in the Russian Parliament.

This rule, however, made it imperative that a fixed minimum of peasant members must be sent to the Duma, a fixed minimum of landed proprietors, and so on. But the Radical elements in the Duma practically all came from the cities of Petrograd, Moscow, Kiev, Odessa, Riga, Warsaw and Lodz. These seven cities elected their representatives for the Duma direct, although even in their case special precautions were taken to give the advantage to the wealthy electors.

Q.—What was the Council of the Empire?

A.—There was of old an Upper House called the Council of the Empire, consisting of 196 members, half being nominated by the Emperor and half being elected. The Czar nominated his own Ministers, who were *ex officio* members of the Council. Of the 98 elected members the Monks selected three, the clergy three, the Corporations of Nobles eighteen, the Academies of Science and the Universities six, the Chambers of Commerce six, the In-

dustrial Councils six, the Zemstvos thirty-four, Governments having no Zemstvos sixteen, and Poland six. Another body, called the Senate, had really nothing to do with legislative matters. It was actually a sort of Supreme Court, but performed a great variety of functions. All its members were nominees of the Czar.

Q.—What does "Soviet" mean?

A.—It is the Russian word for council. It appears frequently in the newspaper dispatches as a brief and convenient synonym for the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies.

Q.—What are the various Russian "Councils"?

A.—They spring from certain Workmen's, People's, Peasants' and Soldiers' Councils that were formed in several places in Russia during the disorders in 1905.

They were remembered when the 1917 revolution came. The Petrograd Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies was organized before the Provisional Government was formed. The Petrograd Council was soon supplemented by delegates from other councils, and this enlarged council launched the important campaign for the publication of secret treaties, and for a general peace at the earliest possible moment.

Then an All-Russian Congress of Councils of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies held a joint session to discuss vast and radical economic reforms.

The Congress adjourned in July, leaving a permanent executive committee, to which the Socialist ministers of the coalition cabinet were held responsible. The executive committee supported the Kerensky Government until the Kornilov affair, when, under the influence of the Bolsheviki, it began to take a more radical line again.

The newly elected municipal governments were tending to replace the Councils of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies when the Bolsheviki uprising of November, 1917, occurred.

Q.—What is meant by the "Camarilla"?

A.—"Camarilla" is a Spanish equivalent for the English "cabal." The name was applied to the group of men and women who surrounded the Czar. Among them were to be found politicians, generals, and priests. Some of them were, very probably, pro-German, and, previous to the revolution, were working for a separate peace. Others, like Rasputin, were primarily interested in gaining as much power and wealth as possible. The Czar and Czarina were influenced excessively by this group, and nothing of which they disapproved had much chance of reaching the ear or eye of Russia's autocrat.

Q.—Who was Rasputin?

A.—A Russian monk, known as the "holy devil" of the Russian Court, who is thought to have wielded extraordinary and fateful power over the Czarina, and, through her, over the Czar, and have materially hastened the downfall of the Romanoff dynasty by inciting them to more and more merciless autocratic measures and intolerant policies against liberalism.

Q.—Why did the Bolsheviki refuse to let Ambassadors draw money from banks?

A.—In order to compel the British Government to give the Bolsheviki Government complete control of Russian funds in the Bank of England. In reality, the object was far greater than merely that of gaining access to funds. To admit their right to the Russian funds meant to acknowledge the Bolsheviki Government.

Q.—When was the Russian Constituent Assembly dissolved?

A.—The Russian Constituent Assembly held its first meeting on January 18, 1918, and after a single turbulent session was dissolved by armed Bolshevist sailors in pursuance of a degree issued by Premier Lenine. The assembly was succeeded by the All-Russian Congress of Soviets (councils of workmen and soldiers), which held its first meeting on January 22nd.

Q.—What was the personnel of the American mission to Russia?

A.—Elihu Root, Charles R. Crane, General Hugh M. Scott, Rear-Admiral Glennon, John R. Mott, Charles Edward Russell, and Cyrus McCormick.

Q.—What did Russia owe the United States when she withdrew from the war?

A.—At that time Russia owed us $187,779,000—that is, we had advanced this money for Russian account to our

own manufacturers and producers for goods. Many of these had been sent to Russia and were, presumably, piled up in Vladivostock when the Russians signed the peace with the Germans. The United States held Russian bonds as security for the loan, which was part of a total credit that had been established for $325,000,000.

Q.—How many prisoners of war were in Russia in 1918?

A.—Apparently about 1½ million Germans and Austro-Hungarians, with a sprinkling of Turks and Bulgars. Most of the prisoners were Austro-Hungarians, for the Russian captures of German soldiers were comparatively small, as figures go in this huge war. Not all of these prisoners were soldiers, either. Russia interned a very large number of Germans and Austrians who were in her possession when war began.

Q.—Did she send the prisoners to Siberia?

A.—She sent most of them to Siberia. Little was said about it early in the war, because the name "Siberia" was recognized by the Allies as possibly conveying a sense of tragic exile and suffering. We must remember, however, that Siberia is not at all the forbidding country that past generations believed it to be. It is undeniable that the long journey through a country with inadequate rail facilities, and with very inadequate places of rest, was very hard; but when the prisoners arrived at their destinations, they were, probably, not badly off. The innate kindliness of the Russian population would do much to alleviate their lot as far as insufficient resources permitted.

Q.—When was the Russian Red Army organized?

A.—"The New Workmen's and Peasants' Red Army" was named in an official communication, January 31, 1918, of the Bolsheviki Government of Russia, as being ready to "serve to support the coming social revolution in Europe."

Q.—When was the name of St. Petersburg changed to Petrograd?

A.—It was done by Imperial ukase on September 1, 1914. The city then had a population of well over 2,000,000, but after the Grand Duke evacuated Poland this was temporarily increased by almost another million.

Q.—How many Prime Ministers has Russia had since the war?

A.—Seven: Kokovtsoff, Goremykin, Sturmer, Trepoff, Prince Golitzin, Prince Lvoff and Kerensky. Then came the rule of Lenine and the Bolsheviki party.

Q.—How many men did Russia send to the front in the first three months?

A.—Russia put into the field during the first weeks of the war about a million and a quarter, which grew to perhaps two million and a half by the winter of 1914-1915.

Q.—Did Tolstoy foretell events of the war?

A.—In 1910 he wrote an essay addressed to the Czar, the Kaiser, and King George, in which he foretold that commercialism would set the world afire with the flames of war and bigotry. He said: "The great conflagration will start about 1912, set by the torch of war, in the countries of southeastern Europe. It will develop into a destructive calamity in 1913. In that year I see all Europe in flames and bleeding. I hear the lamentations of huge battlefields. But about the year 1915 a strange figure from the north—a new Napoleon—enters the stage of the bloody drama. He is a man of little militaristic training, a writer or a journalist, but in his grip most of Europe will remain till 1925. The end of the great calamity will mark a new political era for the old world. There will be left no empires and kingdoms, but the world will form a federation of the United States of Nations. There will remain only four great giants—the Anglo-Saxons, the Latins, the Slavs, and the Mongolians."

Q.—Did Tolstoy not also prophesy a new Messiah?

A.—Yes. In that same essay he said: "After the year 1925 I see a change in religious sentiments. Bigotry has brought about the fall of the church. The ethical idea has almost vanished. Humanity is without the moral feeling. But then a great reformer arises. He will clear the world of the relics of monotheism, and lay the cornerstone of the temple of pantheism. God, soul, spirit, and immortality will be molten in a new furnace, and I see the peaceful beginning of an ethical era. The man determined to this mission is a Mongolian-Slav. He is already walk-

ing the earth—a man of active affairs. He himself does not now realize the mission assigned to him by a superior power."

Q.—What is Brest-Litovsk?

A.—Brest-Litovsk is an eastern frontier town of Russian Poland, about one hundred miles east of Warsaw. It was the scene of the peace parleys between the Germans and the Russian Bolsheviki leaders, Trotzky and Lenine.

Q.—When was the Czar overthrown?

A.—The first news of the revolution of the Russian people and the abdication of Czar Nicholas came to the world on March 16, 1917. There were intimations two days before this that some political crisis was at hand, but the reports were so vague that they gave little clue to what was going on. On March 18 the Provisional Government issued its Appeal to the People, and this date has been accepted as the beginning of the new régime.

Q.—How are the Russians off for food and fuel?

A.—One of the most reliable writers, who has recently been in Russia, reports as follows:

"In Petrograd, though I was stopping at one of the most highly esteemed Russian hotels, often in the morning the waiter would come up to my room with the cheerful tidings:

"'No sugar to-day; no butter; no eggs; no milk.' And he would set before me a pot of clear bitter coffee, and a small chunk of soggy black bread. But when I made trips to the villages, in peasant huts I would be regaled by my hospitable host with white bread, rich, fresh milk, and also eggs and butter. I would fatten on the land for a time, and then would return to my meager life in that starved, elaborate hotel.

"Not only was food scarce in the towns, but the people were dreading the winter with the low supply of fuel on hand, especially in Moscow. For, as a rule, the Russians use stove wood to heat their homes and, though the peasants had not seized the forests, they felt that these forests would soon be their own; therefore, last summer they refused to cut firewood for the towns."

Q.—What does Russia owe for war loans alone?

A.—It owes for loans made during the Czardom alone at least 25 billions.

Q.—What did Russia do in the war?

A.—Early in the war she invaded eastern Prussia twice, but was driven back. Then she drove through eastern Galicia, and started invasion of Hungary through the Carpathians.

In 1915 the Germans struck back hard, and pushed Russian armies out of Poland and to the Brest-Litovsk line. The Russians lost Lemberg and Warsaw.

In 1916 they drove forward again, and made a grand campaign into Galicia and Volhynia, drove the Turks almost wholly out of Armenia, threatened to smash the whole Austrian front, but suddenly were caught by a German counter-offensive and lost most of their gains.

In 1917 the progressive weakening of the Russian front was becoming well known, despite the censorship, and suddenly in March, the crisis came with the revolution which dethroned the Czar.

In 1918 various parts of Russia began to declare their independence. On February 10, 1918, Russia was declared out of the war. There was a brief reaction which at first seemed important, but on March 3, 1918, Russia made her initial peace with Germany.

JAPAN AND MANCHURIA

Q.—How far would Japan have to move troops to attack the Germans?

A.—She would have to move them from Harbin or Vladivostock over the Siberian Railroad, which is presumably in no very good condition. The length of the railroad from Vladivostock to Moscow is 5,392 miles. In addition, there are the sea transports from Japan to the Asiatic mainland, and the railroad transport to Japanese seaports from the concentration centers. Altogether, Japan's troops would have to be moved double the distance across the American continent between New York and San Francisco.

Q.—Is Manchuria Chinese territory?

A.—It is very old Chinese territory. It was the seat of the Manchu dynasty which ruled China for many centuries. But when Russia expanded through Siberia to the Pacific Ocean, and Japan stretched herself and looked toward the nearby Asiatic continent, Manchuria's geographical position turned out to be unlucky—for China. Inland the territory lay in such a way that it blocked Russia's straight road to her Siberian port of Vladivostock. On the sea, its coast was opposite Japan.

Q.—Is Manchuria very far north?

A.—The easiest way to visualize the geography of Manchuria is to understand that the whole China coast, including Manchuria, occupies about the same latitudes as does the American coast from Cuba to Newfoundland. China proper extends about as far north as New York is in our hemisphere. Manchuria occupies the latitudes north from New York to Newfoundland. The geographical relation of Japan to this territory may be understood if you will imagine the Japanese island empire lying along the American coast with its southern end only a hundred miles from Savannah, Georgia, and its northern end about equally near to Nova Scotia, while all the Atlantic Ocean between these two points is an inclosed sea—the Sea of Japan.

Q.—Was the Russo-Japanese war about Manchuria?

A.—Yes. From the time of her war with China, Japan had been watching the Asiatic mainland more jealously with every year. Russia, meantime, was thrusting herself against the northern border of China (Manchuria) with ever-increasing pressure. In 1900 came an opportunity. It was the famous "Boxer" uprising. Russia immediately proclaimed that law and order and the security of her Siberian frontiers obliged her to restore tranquillity in China, and she moved into Manchuria.

Then followed four years of intricate Asiatic politics which involved not merely Manchuria but Korea. Russia maintained her hold despite Japan's threats and counter-moves, and the island empire suddenly broke off diplomatic relations and began war on Russia February 8, 1904. Japan was victorious on land and sea.

Q.—How far is Japan from the Asiatic mainland?

A.—The northern and southern extremities of the Japanese group of islands swing in close to Asia. The rest of the group curves away in a huge crescent from the Asiatic mainland. Nippon, the biggest island, is 453 miles from Vladivostock, across the Sea of Japan.

Q.—Was Chinese Manchuria cut up after the Russo-Japanese war?

A.—It was not "cut up." It was artistically and scientifically penetrated. By the Portsmouth peace treaty, Russia ceded to Japan not only the Chinese lease of Port Arthur, but also the railroad extending northward into Manchuria for about five hundred miles. This is the railroad that runs northward to Harbin, the town where Chinese, Japanese and Russian interests come to a meeting point.

Harbin is on the border between northern Manchuria and China proper, and it is, furthermore, on the Siberian railroad. Thus it is a "strategic junction point." In addition, it is not far from the Siberian border.

Q.—Did Russia take Siberia from China?

A.—No. Russia did not, as a matter of fact, take Siberia from anybody. While English and Spanish sea-adventurers were fighting for the golden lands of the Spanish Main in our hemisphere in Queen Elizabeth's time, a Cossack adventurer, named Yermak, led a little band of men across the Urals from Russia, and added Siberia to the Czar's empire, practically by discovery. There was fighting with the Tartar tribes, but it was very desultory, and in less than a century the Russian sway touched the Pacific Ocean. In 1700 the autocracy began to "utilize" the wonderful new territory as a convenient place for imprisonment.

Q.—Is Port Arthur Russian, Chinese or Japanese?

A.—It is Chinese—technically. It is in Chinese territory. China fortified the city in 1891. Japan took it in the China-Japanese War, 1894. She was not permitted by the Powers to keep it. In 1898 Russia moved in and "acquired" it from China on a lease. In 1905, during the Russo-Japanese War, Japan took it from Russia after a long siege.

Q.—How could Japan take Port Arthur from Russia if China owns it?

A.—By the treaty of peace between Russia and Japan (signed in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in 1905) the Russian Government ceded the lease of Port Arthur and adjacent territories and waters to Japan. In 1915 China extended the lease, making it run 99 years from that date. Thus Japan is secure in her possession of this foothold on the Asiatic continent until 2014.

Q.—Where is Korea?

A.—Korea is, geographically, a part of Manchuria, being a southern extension that thrusts an enormous peninsula between the Sea of Japan and the Yellow or China Sea, and almost touches the southernmost islands of Japan with its extremity. The island group that has the famous Japanese port of Nagasaki on it is just across the Korean Straits from the Korean extremity.

Q.—Is Port Arthur near Korea?

A.—On the China or Yellow Sea side of the Korean Peninsula (toward the China mainland) is a huge gulf. Protruding into this gulf, between Korea and the Chinese province Chili (which has Pekin in it) is a big peninsula known as the Peninsula of Liaotung. The fortified city of Port Arthur is at its extremity. From the west coast of Korea to Port Arthur is 191 miles.

Q.—Is Vladivostock near Port Arthur?

A.—No. It is very much farther north, and the two places are separated by the Korean Peninsula and a whole lot of coast-line on both sides of the Peninsula. Vladivostock, if situated on our coasts, would occupy about the geographical position of Boston. Port Arthur would be enough farther south to be about where Philadelphia is.

To steam from Port Arthur to Vladivostock a ship must go down the Yellow Sea southward, then turn northeast through the Korean Straits between Japan and Korea, and then steer north through the Sea of Japan to Vladivostock.

Q.—How long has Russia had Vladivostock?

A.—More than half a century. Vladivostock was made into a great seaport and rail terminus as a logical part of Russia's expansion through Siberia. It is in real Siberian territory, not in Manchuria, though the Russian Siberian coast there stretches itself along the sea in such a way that Manchurian territory forms "hinter-land."

Q.—Did Japan always own Korea?

A.—Korea was an independent monarchy, but Japan gradually extended her influence there and in 1910, by treaty, Korea was annexed to the island empire. The Korean Government appealed to the Powers of Europe for aid, but nothing was done. There followed a good deal of rebellion, or rather of revolutionary agitation by young Koreans, many of whom had been educated in Europe and America. These movements were suppressed in the usual way, and for a long time nothing has been heard of Korea.

Q.—How many islands compose the Japanese group?

A.—There are 431 islands. Altogether their area in square miles is a little bigger than Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin combined. They have three times the population, however, having 56 million people, a little more

than half the total population of the United States and within 9 millions of the whole population of Germany.

Q.—How far are the Philippines from Japan?

A.—The northernmost point of the Philippine group (island of Luzon) is about 1,200 miles south from the Japanese port of Nagasaki on the extreme southern end of the Japanese group proper. Japan, however, has a base on the great island of Formosa, which lies off the South China coast. Between this island and the Philippines there are about 250 miles of sea.

Q.—Is Manila very far from Yokohama?

A.—Relatively those two points occupy about the same geographical positions as do Hampton Roads, the American naval base in Chesapeake Bay, and the southern West Indies. Yokohama and Tokio (both lying on the same big harbor) would about correspond in position with Norfolk and Fortress Monroe (speaking roughly). The West Indian island of Martinique about corresponds in position with that of Manila. The Japanese base of Formosa is about half as far from Manila as our Cuban naval base, Guantanamo, is from Panama.

Q.—What is the system of Japan's government?

A.—It is governed under a constitution adopted in 1889. The Emperor exercises the executive power, with the assistance of Cabinet Ministers, and a Privy Council is called in for consultation on important matters. There is a parliament, known as the Imperial Diet. It consists of two houses, a House of Peers and a House of Representatives, and each House may initiate legislation, make representations to the Government on subjects regarding the nation, and present addresses to the Emperor. The House of Peers has 369 members and the House of Representatives has 379.

Q.—What is Japan's foreign trade?

A.—For the calendar year 1917 the figures are: exports, 800 million dollars; imports, 500 millions. In 1913 her exports were 300 millions and her imports 360 million dollars.

Q.—What does Japan import mostly?

A.—Iron and raw cotton are the big imports. Wool, machinery and copper come next in value.

Q.—How big is Japan's merchant fleet?

A.—Government encouragement of shipbuilding has given Japan a formidable merchant fleet in a very short period of time. At the end of 1916 there were 3,759 steamships under the Japanese flag, with a gross tonnage of 1,716,104. The constructive ability of the country had been enhanced to such a degree that there were 224 private shipyards, and 61 private dry-docks in the islands. Vessels building in the beginning of 1917 were 182, all more than 700 gross tons, and totaling about 638,000 tons.

Q.—Is the Emperor still known as "Mikado"?

A.—The title "Mikado" is an ancient appellation, dating far back to Japan's early tribal and religious history. It has retained a deep romantic, poetic and spiritual meaning for the modern Japanese, but the title now used for the Emperor in modern Japanese speech is "Tenno," or "Tenshi" in the native speech. For official documents the title employed is "Kotei," which means "Imperial Ruler."

Q.—What is the religion of the Japanese?

A.—There are two chief forms of religion—Shintoism, with about a dozen sects, and Buddhism, with about 9 sects. These are not State religions, and Japan has entire religious freedom. According to an enumeration of 1911, there were then in Japan 1,290 churches and preaching stations of the Roman Catholic, Greek Catholic and Protestant churches. Shinto priests numbered 74,141. Buddhist high priests and priestesses numbered 53,042. There were more than 100,000 Buddhist temples and shrines. In addition to these there are shrines dedicated to eminent ancestors of the Imperial house and to meritorious subjects. These are independent of any religious sect, and some are supported by State or local authority.

Q.—Why did Japan enter the European war?

A.—Japan explained her entry into the war by declaring that her treaty with Great Britain made it incumbent on her to do so. This was the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of 1902, made before the Russo-Japanese War. Its direct object, according to its clauses, was the maintenance of the situation then existent in Korea and Manchuria. It stipulated that should either of the parties to the treaty become involved in war with a single power, the other party should maintain "benevolent neutrality." If attacked by two powers, the other was bound to come to its aid.

In 1905 the treaty was extended to protect British interests in India and Afghanistan, while Japan got a free hand in Korea.

Q.—What were the famous 21 Japanese demands on China?

A.—On January 18, 1915, Japan suddenly laid before China a series of demands relating most comprehensively to Shan-tung province, the Yangtse valley, South Manchuria and Eastern Mongolia. The demands were in five sections, and the most serious demands were in section five, which the Japanese failed to make public to the Allied powers or the world. In fact, there were denials sent out that there was such a section, but the Chinese Government published the fact. After long negotiations Japan delivered an ultimatum, in May, 1915, and China accepted the four sections, leaving section five for future negotiations. The agreement transferred to Japan all the German rights in Shan-tung province, and extended the lease of Port Arthur and the South Manchurian railroad for 99 years. There was another clause giving Japanese "preference in South Manchuria as foreign advisers, instructors, political, financial, military and police."

Q.—What was the Japanese-American Agreement?

A.—On November 2, 1917, Viscount Ishii for Japan and Secretary Lansing for the United States exchanged notes clarifying the policy of the United States and Japan regarding China. The important points of the agreement were: "The Governments of the United States and Japan recognize that territorial propinquity creates special relations between countries, and consequently the Government of the United States recognizes that Japan has special interests in China, particularly in the part to which her possessions are contiguous. The territorial sovereignty of China, nevertheless, remains unimpaired, and the Government of the United States has every confidence in the repeated assurances of the Japanese Government that, while geographical position gives Japan such special interests, they have no desire to discriminate against the trade of other nations. . . . Moreover, they mutually declare that they are opposed to the acquisition by any Government of any special rights or privileges that would affect the independence or territorial integrity of China, or that would deny to the subjects or citizens of any country the full enjoyment of equal opportunities in the commerce and industries of China." The Chinese Government has issued a statement protesting and refusing to be bound by agreements concerning it entered into by other Powers.

Q.—What active part did Japan take in the war?

A.—In November, 1914, she forced the surrender of Kiaou-Chau, the province in China which Germany had acquired as indemnity for the Boxer outrages, and from which as a base she was extending a railway system into China in furtherance of German commerce.

Japan was Great Britain's ally in the East. She despatched an ultimatum to Germany August 15, 1914, demanding the departure of German ships from Chinese waters and the transfer of Kiaou-Chau to Japan as first step to its return to Chinese control.

The time limit of the ultimatum was August 23, and on that day Japan declared war upon Germany. After a siege of eight weeks Kiaou-Chau was surrendered and Germany's rule in the Far East was at an end.

Q.—Did Japan agree to return Kiaou-Chau to China?

A.—In her ultimatum to Germany, August 16, 1914, Japan demanded of Germany that she deliver over her territory of Kiaou-Chau. The second clause in this ultimatum read:

"Second—To deliver on a date not later than September 15 (1914), to the Imperial Japanese authorities, without condition or compensation, the entire leased territory of Kiaou-Chau, with a view to the eventual restoration of the same to China."

Q.—Did Japanese participate in the destruction of Admiral von Spee's fleet?

A.—No. There were no Japanese vessels on the scene at all. They did help in a way, however, for they helped the *Australia* and other British ships chase von Spee out of the Pacific, around the Horn, to his fate off the Falklands.

Q.—Did Japan have a secret treaty with the Czar?

A.—Japan had a secret treaty with the Czar's Government. It was signed in June, 1916, between Sazonoff, then Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Viscount Motono, Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The treaty provided that if any other nation made war against either Russia or Japan over the Chinese question, the parties to the treaty should be allies in the war.

The Trotzky-Lenine Government found the treaty in the Russian secret files and immediately made it public.

Q.—How big is Japan's navy?

A.—Japan stands fifth among naval powers, with Great Britain, the United States, Germany and France leading her. In 1917 she had 10 dreadnaughts built and completing, 26 pre-dreadnaughts and armored cruisers, 25 protected cruisers, scouts, etc., 77 destroyers, 26 torpedo boats, and 16 submarines.

Q.—How big is Japan's army?

A.—Japan has universal obligatory military service, her population being divided into various "bans," or reserve lines, much on the German model. The "peace-strength" (which apparently means the standing army and the men serving their military course at the time) is given as about a quarter of a million men. The war strength is about 30,000 men in the regular army, 200,000 in the reserves, one million as reinforcements, and a large force of territorial army material whose size is not stated.

Q.—Can Japan support her own population agriculturally?

A.—Japanese experts hold that if the people would cultivate land at present unused which is inclined at an angle of less than 15 degrees (terracing and otherwise improving these hill-sides like the Chinese) the area of arable land in Japan might be doubled. It is estimated that in Hokkaido, the northernmost island of the archipelago, there is enough uncultivated land to take care of the surplus Japanese population for many years to come. As the people farm now, they are crowded so densely in limited areas that, though the population of Japan actually is less dense than that of England or Belgium, the population per square mile occupied is given approximately as follows: England 466, Belgium 702, Japan 2,688. This would give the Japanese at present less than a quarter-acre of land for each person.

Q.—Is the cost of living notably low in Japan?

A.—The actual cost of living is not so low as might be thought, but the Japanese workman does without the comforts and pleasures enjoyed by his fellow workman in other lands. Not only is thrift required, but great self-denial, to make ends meet in the Mikado's kingdom. The price of rice is practically the same in Japan as it is in America. Sugar and salt cost practically the same in Japan as in England. Tea is cheaper, but fuel is much dearer. Meat is more expensive in Japan, but fish is cheaper. Beef sells in Japan at 25 cents per pound, horse meat at 13 cents, and pork at 14 cents. These are for the cheapest cuts. Butter, cheese, milk and cream are about as expensive in Japan as they are in England. Eggs are cheaper there; the best grades selling the year round at 18 cents a dozen, but the eggs of Japan are small and of inferior quality. Rent is cheaper, but the houses are of very light construction, and give no protection from the cold of winter. Clothing in the European style costs about the same in Japan as in England. Japanese clothing is actually more expensive than European, and many Japanese adopt the foreign style of dress out of motives of economy. But, of course, the poor Japanese spend much less on dress than we do; in fact, during the greater part of the year the climate is such that the lower classes seldom wear much more than the compulsory loin cloth.

Q.—Please give some idea of the wages paid in Japan.

A.—Official reports in 1913 gave the following daily wages: Silk spinners, 30 sen (15 cents); weavers, 21 cents; dyers, 25 cents; tailors, 29 cents; shoemakers, 37 cents; carpenters, 44 cents; plasterers, 46 cents; stone-cutters, 50 cents; printers, 27 cents.

These wages were not for an 8-hour day, but for from 10 to 16 hours.

Q.—Is there a Socialist movement in Japan?

A.—Yes. It is, however, strongly repressed by the Government. In 1911 twelve leaders of a very radical socialist movement were charged with plotting the assassination of the Mikado. They were executed January 25, 1911, and from that time the Government has strictly prohibited the Socialist movement. In spite of this, it is said that the teaching is spreading among the common people.

Q.—Who were the Samurai?

A.—They were the military class of old Japan—largely retainers supported by feudal chiefs. Socially they stood next below the throne and the nobles. Below them (very far below) came the common people. They were fierce, giving their enemies no quarter. But they had a decidedly high code of honor of their own.

COST OF WAR (AMERICA)

Q.—What does the whole war cost the world every minute?

A.—Counting the United States expenditures in, it was estimated early in 1918 (on the basis of the most conservative and exact figures available) that the money cost alone was $80,000 a minute. A United States Government estimate of the daily expenditures of all the belligerents would make the sum per minute $81,249. This estimate (published March 1, 1918) was that the rate of daily expenditure then was $116,700,000.

Q.—How does the whole war-cost compare with world-wealth?

A.—All the wheat lands of the globe, producing at maximum capacity (say 2,500,000,000 bushels at $2 a bushel), could not pay the cost in less than a quarter-century. All the gold mined in the last 65 years (from 1850 to 1916) could not pay more than 1/7 of the cost of the first three years of war. All the revenues for a year of all the nations in the world, if they were all put together, would pay only 15 per cent of the mere money cost from August, 1914, to April, 1918. The money that one year of war costs would almost pay all the national debts of every country in the entire world, from the United States to Siam.

Q.—What does the war cost America alone monthly?

A.—In round figures, 1½ billion dollars a month (in July, 1918).

The exact figures were: November, 1917, $982,000,000; December, 1917, $1,105,000,000; January, 1918, $1,090,000,000; February, 1918, $1,002,878,608; of which $665,400,000 was for war expenses, and $325,000,000 was for loans to the Allies.

Q.—How does our war-bill compare with normal expenditures?

A.—Frank A. Vanderlip, of the National City Bank, New York, says that, whereas the total expenditures of the United States Treasury since its first organization under Alexander Hamilton down through the War of 1812, the Civil War, and the Spanish War (including expenses of these wars, and for every other purpose whatsoever connected with the government), have amounted to a little more than $26,000,000,000, we are now undertaking to spend in a single year no less than $21,000,000,000 (for all purposes, including war).

Q.—Are not interest charges on war-debts enormous?

A.—The United States, at the end of one year only, had obligated itself to pay $225,000,000 annually as interest on loans. (Much of this would be offset by interest received on money advanced to the Allies.) Great Britain's interest charges at the end of four years exceeded one billion dollars annually—a sum larger than its normal peace expenditures.

Q.—To what extent are we lending money to the Allies?

A.—Soon after our entrance into the war, Congress authorized loans to nations "at war with enemies of the United States." By the end of 1917, $7,000,000,000 had been authorized, and more than $4,000,000,000 had been advanced. Of this, Great Britain had received nearly half, France one-fourth, and the rest had gone to Italy, Russia, Belgium, and Serbia. These loans took the form of credits for the purchase of supplies, the United States Government accepting in return securities issued by the foreign governments.

Q.—Is there so much money in the world?

A.—There is not nearly enough actual cash in the world to even begin to pay the running expenditures of the world for war. If all the belligerents were confronted suddenly with the inexorable necessity of paying instantly, in actual cash, for everything as they get it or use it, they would simply have to stop right then and there. It would be physically impossible to find the cash.

For instance, the money in the whole United States on March 1, 1918, was $6,351,584,056. That is, if the government could have gotten every cent that every individual owned, if it could have scraped every bank and every business clean, it could not have raised even enough cash to pay out the $7,000,000,000 loans to the Allies authorized by Congress.

Q.—How can the war continue if cash is lacking?

A.—Even in peace there is never enough cash in the world actually to pay "on the nail" for the business that is done by the world. The big fact is that cash (currency) is only a token. Even gold is valuable only because the world chooses to call it so. Credit is the real world-medium. The world pays itself with paper that has credit (trust) behind it. All the national paper currency of the world is essentially not different from the notes, bills of lading, invoices, and other paper, which form the bulk of the world's commercial structure. Even coins are valuable mostly because of the credit of the government that issues them. Intrinsically they may not be worth much. You might, for instance, have to hawk an American copper cent pretty far and wide if you were forced to use it simply on its value as copper, though the copper is there, sure enough. We have seen what has happened to the Russian rouble, and the German mark. Yet, technically, these values are supposed to be backed by actual coin.

Q.—Just what do the billion-figures mean?

A.—"Billions" really are so big that even the financial expert does not get a sharp image in his mind. We can all understand hundreds, thousands, and even millions; but "billions" mean only dead mathematical figures to most of us.

We can give you a sort of picture, however—of the significance of our war-loans, for instance. Let us take the exact figures, which were (on January 26, 1918) 4 billions, 247 millions, and 400 thousand dollars. That sum (handled within a few months, indeed, almost in a few weeks) was 1½ times the size of our whole national debt at the end of the Civil War.

Q.—Can the huge war-loans possibly be re-paid?

A.—That is a question that the world's greatest financiers have not been able to answer. If the debts to us stood alone, they would not be so very enormous as compared with the possible resources of the Allied nations. But, in view of the enormous wastage of the war, it is quite impossible to calculate how normal revenues may be restored, and how enough additional revenues may be raised to pay the huge accumulations of abnormal debt.

Q.—How did we pay our Civil War debt?

A.—Although the national debt at the end of the Civil War was not altogether three billions of dollars, it was a sum which simply appalled men in that generation, for the world was absolutely parochial in finances as compared with today. The whole world stared aghast at the debt. Many perfectly honorable and talented men saw no possible way out of it except by repudiation.

But the war had hardly closed, when an entire new world of wealth was torn open almost over night. The armies that had been fighting turned to a new and wonderful fight. They fought to open the great West. They burst into the plains. They built the Union Pacific transcontinental railroad. It was as if a new and bountiful continent suddenly had been added to the earth. By 1893, the great debt had dwindled down to $893,000,000. Forty-two years after the war (1907), the last penny had been paid, and it had been paid by new and ever-increasing wealth that sprang from the new territory, so that individual citizens hardly even knew that there was a national debt.

Q.—Is any hidden world-wealth left to pay for this war?

A.—There is a huge amount that is absolutely untouched or has been only partially exploited. Even in old Europe, crowded and intensively exploited though it seems, there is a great deal. It may be that Germany, France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom have exploited their natural wealth pretty closely; but the other countries of Europe, each and every one, still conceal treasures that require only concerted and earnest effort to produce very great values.

Q.—What are some of the hidden resources of Europe?

A.—Spain's mines and agricultural resources, especially herds, with the resulting leather and food products; Italy's Campagna, which, by sanitation (to eliminate pernicious malaria), can be made to produce at least doubly; Russia's oil-fields, which alone should produce enough under modern scientific development to replace a vast part of the world's coal; the wheat-fields of Russian Ukraine, often said to be the richest black earth in the known world; Serbia's wheat-fields and copper mines; Roumania's oil-wells; the forests of Norway and Sweden, and,

greater still, the wonderful and practically unused water-powers of Norway, which alone could do the work now done for the world by extravagant use of millions of tons of coal.

Q.—Is there unused world-territory comparable to our West in 1865?

A.—Yes. Siberia is a bigger territory than the whole United States, and it should prove to be even richer in both agricultural and mining possibilities than was the West of 1865. Siberia alone might well pay the debts of all the world. You must get out of your mind the old idea of Siberia as a forbidding country. You must think of it as you think of the United States—a country that has bleak Alaska and semi-tropical Florida within it. Siberia has territory that remains frozen the year around. It also has territories so mild that tropical beasts like the tiger dwell in it. If the European world were working in unison, to build railroads on a colossal scale into Siberia and across Russia, the wealth that might be expected to flow back would very probably pay the whole war wastage within two generations, and almost without burden on European people.

Q.—How does Siberia compare with the United States?

A.—In area Siberia has 4,800,000 (odd) square miles as against 2,974,000 square miles of the United States. The Siberian population is so small that it amounts to only 2 inhabitants to the square mile against 31 inhabitants to the square mile in our country. Siberia has only 15 important cities against more than 125 very thriving and important American cities. All the railroads in Siberia have only 8,000 miles of track against more than 255,000 miles in the United States.

Q.—Would the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad do much toward new wealth?

A.—Yes. It would tap the ancient scene of the only truly scientific agriculture that the earth once knew. In Asia Minor the civilizations of Assyria and the Semites had irrigation works on a scale that would be considered majestic even to-day. They extracted from that great Asiatic peninsula almost everything that they actually needed—lumber, grains, meats, textile materials. They, or rather their degenerated successors, over-exploited the territory. They cut down the forests, for one thing; and that one thing alone meant the doom of the area, for when the forests (the earth's storage plants for rainfall) were destroyed, the rainfalls made floods that tore the soil from mountain-sides and valleys and left them bare; and when there was no rainfall, there was no stored water to continue to feed the parched land. The irrigation works became useless, and were abandoned. The inhabitants became wretched. All these things can be restored now.

Q.—What is the size of the Asia Minor territory?

A.—Asia Minor has 200,000 square miles—an area that compares closely with that of New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania put together (245,500 square miles). The Asia Minor territory contains 17 million acres under some sort of cultivation. Of minerals it contains chrome (valuable for steel making), asphalt, coal, lignite, petroleum, salt, iron, salt, emery and meerschaum. The iron mines (worked by very primitive methods) produce 40,000 tons a year even now.

Q.—Are there other areas to be exploited?

A.—China, exploited in a large and noble sense, could be made to enrich its own teeming multitudes and still to send forth prodigal riches to the rest of us. The same is true of Africa. But such exploitation, if it is to make the world really richer, must not be individual exploitation by any one nation or group of nations. Here we see the great new spiritual, as well as material, value of the American idea of the "open door." It must be made a door that is open to fine and magnanimous world-effort, not to robbers.

Q.—What does America's war share cost an American citizen per day?

A.—At one billion dollars a month, and figuring the population of the United States as approximately 100 million people, one year of war would cost each American $120 a year, or 32⅞ cents a day.

Q.—What does every minute of war cost us Americans alone?

A.—At the rate of twelve billion dollars a year, every minute costs us $22,831. Take out your watch and look at the sec-

ond-hand. Every time it moves, the country will have spent $380.50 for the war, as based on that computation. But in September, 1918, it was announced that Government expenses were at the rate of $40,446 a minute. That would make each second cost $674.10. This figure includes all expenditures, such as war loans, etc.

Q.—What caused this great rise?

A.—It was caused by a sudden leap in war expenditure for August, 1918. The month's outlay reached $1,805,513,000. This was more than 200 millions heavier than the previous highest monthly record of expenditures since the war began.

Q.—Was most of the money spent on the army?

A.—Of the entire amount $1,524,901,000 went for army and navy, ships and other direct war expenses.

Q.—How did we pay the first year's war cost?

A.—The sources of money supply for government expenditures in the twelve months to June 30, 1918, are presented below:

RECEIPTS

First Loan	$ 520,456,339
Second Loan	3,807,864,835
Third Loan	3,237,714,637
War Savings Stamps.....	307,092,391
Customs, Internal Revenue and miscellaneous taxes	3,658,546,510
Total	$11,531,674,712

Part of the payment of the first loan carried into the fiscal year ending June 30, 1918, although the loan was promoted in the fiscal year 1917, and only 75 per cent of the third loan had been paid for when the Treasury closed its books for that year. In July, 1917, receipts from taxes, due in the preceding fiscal year, were $641,000,000, so the actual revenues from which the Government had a right to apportion expenditures were approximately $12,175,000,000.

Q.—What were our expenditures in the first fiscal war year?

A.—Our expenditures during the fiscal year to June 30, 1918 (the actual first war year ended April, 1918) were as follows: expenditures directly for the operation of the United States Government, and including interest on the public debt of $189,743,277, were $7,874,386,324. To this must be added $4,738,029,750 for purchases of obligations of foreign governments (loans to our Allies), $64,160,000 for purchase of Farm Loan bonds, and $19,268,000 representing payments on account of the Panama Canal, or a grand total of $12,706,652,470. The appropriations for the fiscal year 1918 were about $16,000,000,000, but it was found impossible to spend more than 75 per cent of this sum.

Q.—How much did the war and navy departments spend?

A.—The appropriations for the War Department for the fiscal year 1918 were $8,693,046,485. Up to May 31, 1918, the Department had spent $4,848,467,874. The appropriations for the same period for the Navy Department were $1,544,178,035 and the expenditures up to May 31, 1918, were $1,223,752,923.

Q.—How much did our expenditures rise in the second war year?

A.—The estimates for the year June 30, 1918—June 30, 1919, were for the vast sum of 24 billion dollars.

Q.—How much of this was appropriated for the War and Navy Departments?

A.—The appropriations for 1919 were $12,085,211,114 for the War Department and $1,607,468,416 for the Navy Department.

Q.—What other large costs were there?

A.—The following costs were incidental to war and properly chargeable as was costs: first, $1,830,338,203 for an urgent deficiency and a general deficiency and an additional urgent deficiency act, which would about cover the needs of the various new departments and commissions that had been compelled by the war program. Another $1,000,000,000 was to be set aside for the "revolving fund" of the railroads and for the War Finance Corporation. The sum of $844,507,368 was allocated to the payment of interest on the public debt, for sinking funds and for the expenses of preparation and issuance of loans. Not many persons realize probably, that within the fiscal year 1917-1918 interest payments alone on the public debt of the United States were equal to the principal of the public debt in April, 1917.

Q.—Has the United States ever defaulted on its obligations?

A.—Never. Some of the states repudiated bonds and other obligations, but even these cases were based on a plea of justification. Some states repudiated bond issues by negro and "carpet-bag" legislatures during reconstruction after the Civil War. There has been much conflict of opinion about the justice of this attitude, and the general belief appears to be that, whether the pleas in extenuation are sound or not, it would have been far better for the credit of the whole country had the obligations been honored, even though they were fraudulently laid. However, these were purely local debts. The Federal Government has so well met all its obligations that a United States bond is one of the best securities anywhere in the world.

Q.—Could the war-debts be wiped out without new sources of wealth?

A.—Yes, they might be, though no one is daring enough to prophesy that they actually can be. At best, such a settlement would have to be adjusted over a long period of years. If a nation could survive economically with war taxes continued after peace has come, the debt might possibly be wiped out in a single generation. Great Britain, at the end of its third fiscal year, had produced one dollar in war taxes for every seven dollars of war expenditure. Some lucrative forms of war taxation would end with the war, and substitutes would have to be found.

Q.—What does the war cost all the four nations?

A.—At the end of the first four years of war (July, 1918), and counting only the actual cash spent by the European belligerents and not the war damages (which are literally incalculable), the total was estimated officially in Washington as a little more than 144½ billions of dollars, with the cost per month increasing steadily. The detailed official figures were:

United States	$11,390,000,000
United Kingdom	27,500,000,000
France	20,366,000,000
Russia	22,000,000,000
Italy	7,722,000,000
Other Allies	8,641,000,000
Total	$97,619,000,000
Germany	$30,351,000,000
Austria-Hungary	14,021,000,000
Bulgaria and Turkey	2,648,000,000
Total	$47,020,000,000
Grand total	$144,639,000,000

Q.—What were the total war borrowings of the European belligerents?

A.—There has been some wonderfully complex financing and this, together with statements made purposely intricate (to mislead the enemy), has perplexed even astute financial experts. The U. S. Committee on Public Information announced early in 1918:

"As long ago as in April, 1916, the approximate amounts of the loans contracted for war purposes by the different belligerent powers were stated to be $19,881,731,110 for the Allies (of which sum $7,903,145,000 was for Great Britain and $6,590,053,000 for France), and $9,206,750,000 for the enemy powers ($6,415,250,000 for Germany). This was a grand total of $29,088,481,110 for all war loans. Many new ones have, of course, been made since the date mentioned.

Q.—How do American war-loan subscriptions compare with the British?

A.—After two and a half years of war, Britain floated a loan of $5,000,000,000, with 5,289,000 subscribers. In its second loan (limited to $4,500,000,000), the United States (with twice Britain's population) received applications for $4,617,532,000 from 9,500,000 subscribers.

Q.—How much did the United States take from individual incomes?

A.—Before the new income taxes were laid on by the big eight-billion-dollar revenue bill of 1918, the income tax (levied under the 1917 revenue bill) was: minimum incomes taxed, $1,000 (single), $2,000 (married). Additional graduated taxes on incomes exceeding $5,000 a year. This 1917 measure taxed incomes between $5,000 and $7,500 1 per cent in addition to old tax;

$7,500 and $10,000, 2 per cent; $10,000 and $12,000, 3 per cent; $12,500 and $15,000, 4 per cent; over $500,000, from 50 per cent up to 63 per cent.

Q.—What is the purpose of War Savings Stamps and Certificates?

A.—To encourage thrift and to enable persons with meager incomes to lend even small sums to the Government. Stamps affixed to a certificate are redeemable in five years at $5 each. They cost from $4.12 in January, 1918, with an increase of 1 cent for each succeeding month. Thrift stamps were also issued, costing 25 cents each, bearing no interest, but exchangeable for War Savings Stamps, which do bear interest as shown.

Q.—What were our cash assets in February, 1918.

A.—The total cash assets of the Government were $4,027,919,548, which included $2,401,135,506 gold, $491,673,559 silver, and the balance of the general fund.

Q.—How has the United States sought to finance its war activities?

A.—By increasing national income (taxation), and by borrowing money (domestic loans).

Q.—What were the principal war-taxes in the revenue measure of 1917?

A.—The revenue bill of October 13, 1917, carried a so-called "excess profits" tax, while income taxes and postal rates were increased, and additional imposts were placed on liquor and tobacco. There were also war-taxes on theater and railway tickets, club dues, and various minor imposts.

Q.—How much income can we figure on?

A.—The Treasury Department figured that in the fiscal year (July 1, 1917, to July, 1918) the receipts from our internal taxes would be $3,400,000,000.

Customs and miscellaneous revenue had swelled the ordinary receipts early in 1918 to $768,677,000, and receipts from liberty loans, certificates, war savings and other public debt sources had been $9,811,668,000, making the government's total receipts in the first 8 months of war $10,583,684,000. The war-savings movement brought $75,000,000 in three months.

Q.—How many bonds did the United States issue during its first year of war?

A.—Two "Liberty Loans" were issued to the public in 1917, and a third was opened for subscription in April, 1918. The first loan, bearing 3½ per cent interest, was offered in June, 1917, and was limited to $2,000,000,000. The total amount subscribed was $3,035,226,850, an over-subscription of about 50 per cent. The number of subscriptions were more than 4,000,000. The second loan at 4 per cent, was offered in October, 1917, and was limited to $3,000,000,000 and 50 per cent of subscriptions in excess of that amount. More than 9,000,000 subscribers subscribed $4,617,532,300. The third loan had 17,000,000 subscribers who subscribed $4,176,516,850. The fourth loan, opened September 28, 1918, was for six billions.

Q.—Have many bonds been sold again by investors?

A.—The Secretary of the Treasury estimated on March 1, 1918—after eight months of trading—that about $180,000,000 worth of the bonds had been resold. This was approximately 3 per cent of the total then issued by the Government. Many of the same bonds, however, had been sold over and over again.

Q.—How does the war cost compare with investment in navies?

A.—The combined sum spent in 1913 by Great Britain, Germany, and the United States on their navies for construction, maintenance, pay, cruising, repairs, coal and docking would pay for just 4 days and 8 hours of the war.

Q.—Is there a widely circulated dollar coin that has no legal recognition?

A.—Yes. It is known as the Maria Theresa dollar, and is widely used throughout Arabia and northeastern Africa, though it has absolutely no sanction of any government behind it, and, indeed, has been declared a prohibited article more than once. It is a silver dollar with the image of Maria Theresa, the famous Empress of Austria, and it is reported that the Arab traders used to circulate as many as 200 millions of them,

and were doing so when the war began.

This silver coin originally was minted by Austria in Maria Theresa's time. She was beautiful, and her image appealed to the Orientals. When the Austrian Government ceased to mint or use the coin, they continued to mint it and have been minting it ever since—a private, unlegalized piece of money that still bears the date of the original genuine coins—1780.

Lately great quantities of this curious "people's money" have been coming into the assay offices of the world, because the high price of silver has induced the traders to deliver the coins to be melted.

Q.—What have our previous wars cost?

A.—The War of 1812 with Great Britain cost us 120 millions, in round figures. The war with Mexico cost us 173 millions, in round figures. The Civil War cost the North alone 3 billions, 480 millions. The Spanish-American War cost 1 billion, 905 millions.

Q.—What did our past wars cost per year?

A.—The War of 1812 cost us at the rate of 44 millions a year. The Mexican War cost at the rate of 77 millions a year. The Civil War costs were at the rate of 580 millions a year. The Spanish-American War (which lasted as an active military war less than a year), cost at the rate of 2 billions, 540 millions a year—that is, if it had continued actively throughout a whole year, at the rate of expenditure, it would have amounted to that sum.

These figures show strikingly how the cost of war has increased with each generation.

Q.—What has modern Europe spent for wars?

A.—According to the United States Treasury Department, the figures are, exclusive of the Franco-Prussian War:

1793-1815	England and France	$6,250,000,000
1812-1815	France and Russia	450,625,000
1828	Russia and Turkey	100,000,000
1830-1840	Spain and Portugal (civil war)	250,000,000
1830-1847	France and Algeria	190,000,000
1848	Revolts in Europe	50,000,000
1854-1856	England	371,000,000
	France	332,000,000
1854-1856	Sardinia and Turkey	128,000,000
	Austria	68,600,000
	Russia	800,000,000
	France	75,000,000
1859	Austria	127,000,000
	Italy	51,000,000
1864	Denmark, Prussia, and Austria	36,000,000
1866	Prussia and Austria	330,000,000
1864-1870	Brazil, Argentina, and Paraguay	240,000,000
1865-1866	France and Mexico	65,000,000
1876-1877	Russia	806,547,489
	Turkey	403,273,745
1900-1901	Transvaal Republic and England	1,000,100,000
1904-1905	Russia and Japan	2,500,000,000
	The cost of the Balkan wars	1,264,000,000

The total sum is a little over 15 billions 880 millions.

COST OF WAR (ALLIES)

Q.—What have all the world's wars cost?

A.—All the wars of the world (counting in the tremendous Napoleonic wars and all our American wars) cost 24 billions 100 millions. The present war had cost 144½ billions up to July, 1918.

Q.—Is it true that war-expenses are at an ever-increasing rate?

A.—In Great Britain during the first four months of the struggle, the expenditure averaged 4 1/3 million dollars a day. During the first quarter of 1915 the daily rate passed above 7 million dollars. By July of that year it was 15 millions, and three months later it was 17½ millions. By February, 1916, the rate was 22 million dollars; by May, 25 millions, and by October, 1916, 28½ million dollars a day. Since then the daily rate has passed 30 million dollars. On March 7, 1918, Bonar Law, Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced that the Empire's daily war-expenses (up to February 9, 1918) had become $31,906,362. On July 30, 1918, it had risen to $34,920,000 a day.

Q.—How long would it be before the British war-debt could be wiped out?

A.—A careful (though anonymous) published analysis has shown that even with double the ordinary peace revenue, Britain's war-debt (up to 1918) could not be paid off until 43 years had gone by—and that would mean, you must note, the entire use of the entire revenues for nothing else except to pay off interest and debt.

Q.—How much gold is there in sovereigns?

A.—Eleven-twelfths of a sovereign is gold and one-twelfth is copper, but the gold in the sovereign is worth the face value of the coin. From one ounce of standard gold (11/12 fine) sovereigns to the value of £3 17s. 10½d. are coined. In other words, a sovereign is an ingot of standard gold 123.27447 grains weight. Being of an established weight of gold, it gives full gold value in whatever form it may be, since Great Britain has free coinage. The State loses the value of the alloy and the workmanship in making sovereigns.

Q.—What is Free Coinage?

A.—Free coinage means that the Government does not make a profit by coining a precious metal. It means that any person can deliver any quantity of gold to the mint and receive an equivalent amount of gold back in sovereigns with the alloy given in free.

Q.—What is a sovereign worth in American money?

A.—It is worth $4.8665. This is the exact change you would get in normal times if you exchanged a sovereign at your bank. For convenience in figuring, the value of a sovereign or pound sterling is usually taken as $5 when only round numbers are required.

Q.—Why did sovereigns bring only $4.76 in New York in 1917?

A.—Because the exchange rate between Great Britain and America had fallen at the moment to 4.76 dollars, not the usual one of 4.86 dollars. The reasons for exchange are too complicated to explain in a short answer, but, broadly speaking, fluctuations in exchange are due to fluctuations in the indebtedness of any nation as against others.

The war had caused a tremendous trade balance in favor of the United States. Single sovereigns, in consequence, were actually regarded as token money, just as twenty separate shillings would be; but if, instead of trying to change single sovereigns as a traveler naturally does, he took a couple of hundred of them to the mint in Washington to be melted up, he would get the full value of the gold, viz., 4.86 dollars.

It is this failure to obtain full value for gold sovereigns in hotels and shops in New York and other American cities which has caused many people to think that the amount of gold in a sovereign was actually worth less than $4.86.

Q.—Is Great Britain's daily war-cost much greater than that of France?

A.—Taking a mean sum based on an estimate made in Washington before the costs reached the maximum figures that we have given elsewhere, Great Britain's

daily cost does not, under the best circumstances, fall below $30,000,000 any one day.

France (on the same basis of medium figures) is spending $15,369,000 a day. The actual figures are greater, beyond doubt, but we are trying to give absolutely bottom calculations.

Q.—Is not the war-cost small as against England's whole wealth?

A.—Never before in England's history has a war (or any other national or international catastrophe) so much as scratched her wealth noticeably. But this war has almost laid an axe to its very basis. A fair estimate of England's wealth (the United Kingdom) is $85,000,000,000. England's war cost by March, 1918, was at least $30,000,000,000—more than 1/3 of her whole national wealth, or exactly 1/5 of the total wealth of the entire British Empire. (On March 7, 1918, a new vote of credit was "moved" in the House of Commons. It was for 500,000,000 pounds, and it brought the total since war began to $33,293,000,000.)

Q.—What money has Great Britain loaned to its Allies?

A.—Up to August 1. 1917, the total was:

Loans to Dominions.....	$ 730,000,000
Loans to Allies.....	5,125,000,000
Total	$5,855,000,000

Q.—Are all these loans recoverable?

A.—No. Bonar Law, Chancellor of the Exchequer, said in 1918 that at that time only $1,300,000,000 were recoverable.

The loans made to Belgium probably never will be collected, but will be cancelled as a matter of generosity and justice both. Serbia, Montenegro and Roumania probably never could repay their borrowings even if pressed.

Q.—Has Great Britain borrowed much?

A.—Much of the British financing is done by using so-called Treasury bills and Exchequer bonds (short-term note financing, broadly speaking). Of these, not less than $5,000,000,000 were outstanding in September, 1917.

By straight loans the following sums were obtained:

Nov., 1914—3½	per cent...	$1,750,000,000
Nov., 1915—4½	per cent...	$3,080,000,000
Nov., 1917—5	per cent...	$5,000,000,000
Total		$9,830,000,000

Q.—How much money had Great Britain borrowed after three years?

A.—Great Britain had borrowed, in one form and another, $17,875,000,000.

Q.—Did the war increase Great Britain's national debt?

A.—Yes, it increased the national debt enormously. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, speaking in Parliament, estimated that at the end of the fiscal year, 1917-1918 it would "not exceed 28 billions 709 millions." The national debt of Great Britain before the war had been less than 3 billions 500 millions.

Q.—How many British war saving certificates have been bought?

A.—Up to January 26, 1918, certificates to the face value of $550,000,000 had been purchased. This was two years after the scheme had been adopted.

Q.—Has England considered the conscription of capital?

A.—Yes. There has long been a strong party in England which urged that not only should the income taxes be increased, but that the Government should go boldly to property owners and take a percentage of their capital, to help defray the horrible expenditure for the war. Even Chancellor Bonar Law and Premier Lloyd George are understood to be sympathetic to the idea.

The trouble is that the 85 billions of values is not held as cash, and it would be obviously impossible for a whole nation to start selling property at the same time, to raise money for taxes. To meet this difficulty, it has been proposed to collect this tax in installments spread over a number of years, but in that case it becomes substantially just an income tax.

Q.—What is the income tax in Great Britain?

A.—When the war began, the income tax stood at 1 shilling 2 pence; it was increased to 2 shillings 6 pence in the pound

in July, 1915; to 3 shillings 6 pence in December, 1915; and to 5 shillings in 1916. In addition, there was a super-tax of 3 shillings 6 pence in the pound for large incomes.

Q.—At five shillings, does this not take away one-quarter of one's income?

A.—Yes. The weight of the 5 shilling income tax is, however, made easier to those whose ineomes do not exceed £2,500, as far as the earned part is concerned. That earned part will now pay 2 shillings 3 pence to £500 ($2,500); 2 shillings 6 pence to £1,000; 3 shillings to £1,500; 3 shillings 8 pence to £2,000; and 4 shillings 4 pence in the pound when the earned income does not exceed £2,500, at which figure the super-tax becomes payable, if the whole income exceeds £3,000.

And so, also, when an unearned income does not exceed £2,000 ($10,000), the income tax will be 3 shillings to £500; 3 shillings 6 pence to £1,000; 4 shillings to £1,500; and 4 shillings 6 pence in the pound when the income does not exceed £2,000. This relief is due in addition to any other relief, or where exemption or abatement reduces the taxable amount; but the relief must be on account of the claimant's own income and his own income only.

In figuring this, figure 25 cents to the shilling, 2 cents to the penny, and $5 to the pound, and you will have a close idea of the British tax.

Q.—What proportion of excess profits is taken by the British Government?

A.—Originally 50 per cent, it was then raised to 60 per cent, and for 1917 was to be 80 per cent, calculated to bring the Exchequer £180,000,000 ($878,400,000).

Q.—What were the anticipated revenue and expenditure for 1917-1918?

A.—Bonar Law expected to get £612,500,000 ($2,980,731,250), an increase of $190,000,000 only over last year's receipts. He was imposing increased taxation, which was expected to swell the total to $3,096,000,000. The expenditure for the year was expected to reach $11,145,000,000. Evidently, therefore, at least £1,651,781,000 ($8,037,000,000) would have to be borrowed during the year. The new year was entered on with $89,000,000 in the Treasury, and over $2,400,000,000 Treasury Bills outstanding.

Q.—How much was needed to meet interest on the British war-debt?

A.—In his budget speech in May, 1917, Bonar Law set aside the sum of £211,500,000 ($1,029,264,750 at normal rate of $4.8665 American money to the pound sterling) to meet debt charges. Only £17,000,000 ($82,730,500) of this gigantic sum was for pre-war charges, the rest being due entirely to loans raised since the war began. Actually, therefore, the annual amount which Great Britain has to find for the payment of interest on money lent the government exceeds her total annual pre-war revenue and expenditure.

Q.—What was the exact revenue of Great Britain in pre-war days and what is it now?

(in round numbers)

1912-13	$919,000,000
1913-14	947,000,000
1914-15	1,103,000,000
1915-16	1,658,000,000
1916-17	2,790,000,000
1917-18 (est.)	2,980,000,000

Q.—What was the cause of the big jump in 1916?

A.—The estimated revenue for 1916-17 was $2,125,000,000, so that actually $665,000,000 more was obtained than was expected. This was chiefly due to the Excess Profits Tax, which brought in $680,000,000, instead of the anticipated $375,000,000, and Income Tax which, expected to bring in $750,000,000, actually yielded $997,500,000.

Q.—How has British duty on tea increased?

A.—In August, 1914, it was raised from 5d. to 8d. per pound. In December, 1915, it was raised to 1s. per pound. The duty on coffee since August, 1914, has been increased to 6d. a pound, the duty on cocoa to 4½d. a pound. The duty on sugar was found at 1s. 10d. per cwt. when the war broke out. It was then advanced to 9s. 4d., and in 1916 to 14s. To the original tobacco duty of 3s. 8d., 1s. 10d. was added in December, 1915. A duty of 6d. a gallon was placed on motor spirits, and some special import duties were imposed on what were regarded as luxuries—33 1/3 per cent on motor cars, musical instruments, clocks, cinema films and the like. The importation of some of these things has now been entirely prohibited. A duty of 3s. 6d. per 10,000 was levied on

imported matches and an excise duty of 3s. 4d. on locally made matches, with a further addition where more than eighty matches were found in a box. Every tinder box was subject to a duty of 5s. The extra duties levied on beer make the whole tax 25s. per barrel. (Figure the English penny (d.) roughly at 2 cents American, and the shilling (s.) roughly at 25 cents.)

Q.—Did Russia raise her costs by tax or loan?

A.—About half of the money needed was raised by means of Treasury bonds, many of which were taken up by the Allies, among others by Japan.

At the end of July, 1916, the war liabilities consisted of:

Roubles	
9,000,000,000	Treasury bonds. ($4,630,000,000)
5,000,000,000	Internal long term bonds. ($2,573,000,000)
7,406,000,000	External long term bonds. ($3,812,000,000)
21,406,000,000	roubles, total. ($11,015,500,000)

This, however, does not anything like represent all her liability at that time, as the Czar's Government had arranged for credits in London to the extent of 2,000,000,000 roubles ($1,029,200,000) to meet liabilities in respect of the foreign purchase of war material. In addition, the Government had issued 4,899,000,000 ($2,498,000,000) worth of paper money since the war started.

The total Russian loans up to the time of the revolution have been estimated as 25 billion dollars.

Q.—What did France expend for the war?

A.—Figures submitted to the French Chamber of Deputies stated that from August 1, 1914, to December 31, 1917, France had appropriated 87,200,000,000 francs for war expenses. This sum, computed at the normal value in American money of 19.3 cents to the franc, is $16,829,600,000.

Q.—How many war loans has France raised?

A.—Only two public loans had been raised to April, 1918. The first realized 15,130,000,000 francs ($2,920,000,000), the second 11,360,000,000 francs ($2,192,000,000). Forty per cent of the first loan was in cash, and 55 per cent of the second.

The French Government, like the British, accepted payment in what was the French equivalent of British Consols, viz., Rentes. In the first loan this Rentes scrip to the value of 4,430,000,000 francs irredeemable 3 per cent, and 24,400,000 francs redeemable 3½ per cent was accepted.

Holders of Rentes were permitted to transfer to the war loans on condition that they took up a definite proportion of war loan stock for cash in addition. The Government also accepted various other State bonds in payment of war loan stock. The reason why the second loan was smaller, and more of it in cash, was due to the fact that so much of the Rentes had been already transferred to the first loan.

Q.—What did the first French loan actually realize?

A.—The first loan realized $2,920,000,000; but, as it was issued at 88, the actual money obtained was only $2,575,000,000.

Q.—What financial advances did France make to its Allies?

A.—During a discussion late in January, 1918, in the Chamber of Deputies, over a bill authorizing further advances to "Allied and friendly nations," a deputy stated that these advances amounted to 408,000,000 francs ($78,294,000), bringing the total advances to 6,421,000,000 francs ($1,239,000,000), and asked the Government's intention regarding the Russian coupons. He said that the French Government already had paid 2,000,000 francs to French holders of Russian bonds, thus favoring them over the holders in other countries of bonds whose coupons had not been paid since the beginning of the war.

Finance Minister Klotz replied that the financial actions taken in the name of Russia were independent of any changes in régime there. The Allies were discussing the question of the Russian coupons. Meanwhile, he said, France would pay the February coupons as it had paid those falling due in January.

Q.—How is it that France borrows from us, yet lends to her Allies?

A.—Neither Great Britain nor France has advanced much actual cash to its Allies. Between them they provided the Belgian Government with what it needed for out-of-pocket expenses, but practic-

ally all the loans were given to pay for supplies manufactured in the country advancing the money. That is, Italy might obtain a large amount of war material from Great Britain, but instead of having to pay for it, the British Government settles the bill for her with the British manufacturer. Thus, though Italy is liable for the money, and must pay the interest thereon, the money itself actually remains in England all the time.

It is the same with the loans which the United States is granting to the Allies. None of the money thus advanced leaves the United States, but remains in the hands of American manufacturers who have filled orders for England, France, Italy, Belgium and Russia.

Q.—What war loans have the Italians raised?

A.—Their fourth was raised in April, 1917, and realized 3,616,000,000 lire ($697,880,000), of which 2,490,000,000 lire was new money.

Q.—Did Serbia, Roumania and Belgium spend much per day?

A.—About $2,968,000 a day between them, and most of this, of course, was money advanced by the stronger Allies.

Q.—What is Italy's daily war expenditure?

A.—It is about $4,612,000.

Q.—Is this greater than that of Russia?

A.—No. Russia's daily expenditure up to the time of the revolution in March, 1917, was $13,000,000.

COST OF WAR (CENTRAL POWERS)

Q.—How much is the war costing Germany daily?

A.—It was said early in 1917 in a cable from England that it had been officially announced that the daily expenditure of Germany on the war was $25,000,000.

It was announced in the Reichstag on March 16, 1916, that the cost of the last months of 1915 was two milliards of marks monthly—that is, $476,400,000. That would make the daily expenditure just about $15,920,000. The Minister said further that during January and February the cost had been less; that in spite of the immense shell and gun production, and increased cost of raw materials, the expenditure in January, 1916, was just about the same as in January, 1915.

On the basis of the official American estimates for the three years up to August 1, 1917, the daily cost for the German Empire, after America entered the war, would figure out $18,036,529.

Q.—What does the war cost Austria-Hungary daily?

A.—The daily cost of the war to Austria-Hungary was closely figured at $8,858,447.

Q.—What loans has Germany floated?

A.—Up to March 1, 1918, Germany had floated seven loans, all at 5 per cent. The amounts obtained were as follow:—

First loan	$1,120,000,000
Second loan	2,275,750,000
Third loan	3,040,000,000
Fourth loan	2,690,000,000
Fifth loan	2,875,000,000
Sixth loan	3,190,000,000
Seventh loan	3,125,000,000
Total	$18,315,750,000

Q.—Do Bulgaria and Turkey spend much per day?

A.—Yes They spend (combined) about $1,325,000.

Q.—What was the German financial policy for war?

A.—A famous British banker said in February, 1918, that two decisions were apparently reached: First, to raise all the paper money required, regardless of inflation, through the Reichsbank, and, in case this proved insufficient, through the loan banks; and second, to leave all arrangements for rectifying the finances until after the war.

Q.—How did Germany's war finance plan work?

A.—A financial expert said in 1918:

"In December, 1917, there were, roundly, $1,868,300,000 of the Darlehnskassen notes outstanding, and the Reichsbank had $317,000,000 worth of them. The total issues of paper money in Germany, including Reichsbank notes, Imperial Treasury notes, notes of other banks, and, since established, Darlehnskassen notes was as follows at different dates: December, 1913, $700,000,000; December, 1914, $1,629,000,000; December, 1915, $2,377,000,000; December, 1916, $2,912,000,000; December, 1917, $4,783,000,000. The Reichsbank's own notes outstanding, $459,500,000 on July 23, 1914, were $2,787,000,000 on December 31, 1917. (These figures are a little larger than as they figure in German money.)

"These notes go out into the hands of the public and to a large extent find themselves on deposit with the joint-stock banks, where they form the base for the extension of further credits by the joint-stock banks. Hence the deposits of the banking institutions in Germany have increased to a very large extent, and it is estimated that the total increase since the beginning of the war amounts to the equivalent of about £1,000,000,000 (about $5,000,000,000). We see the same thing happening in England, in America, and in other countries."

Q.—What was the German National Bank Law before war?

A.—Under the law before the war the Reichsbank could (and still can) create credit balances without any limit other than financial expediency fixes, but the note issues for public circulation were limited to three times the cash balance on hand, covered one-third by cash and two-thirds by discounted bills falling due within three months and bearing (except in special cases of two-name paper) three names. The ordinary Government Treasury bill was not then a legal bill of exchange for purposes of covering note issues.

Q.—What new German Bank Laws were passed during war?

A.—Immediately upon the outbreak of the war, on Aug. 4, 1914, the German law was changed in two important particulars to permit of the expansion of credit and circulation. It was made legal for the Reichsbank to accept Treasury bills with two official signatures as "bills of exchange." The Government also revived by law a system of special "loan banks," or Darlehnskassen, used in 1848 and in the Franco-Prussian war. These banks made loans such as ordinary commercial banks are unable to make, a class of "dead loans," to individuals, firms, and municipalities to the extent of 40 to 85 per cent of the value of various securities offered, in the form of special Government notes.

These banks were established for the purpose not only of lightening the burden of the Reichsbank and the joint-stock banks in the necessary credit extensions of the emergency, but the notes issued by them were by law made receivable at the Reichsbank as cash for its necessary one-third cash cover in the issuance of its own notes.

Q.—Has war financing not seriously inflated German currency?

A.—Dr. Havenstein, President of the Reichsbank, recently said that the banks will be continued for four or five years after the war, and will be available for any sort of lending on easy terms. He said further that when peace comes, the holders of war loan will find themselves compelled to convert their holdings into hard cash for raw materials, new machinery, etc., which will throw millions of war loan on the market. The responsible authorities recognize that there will be insufficient buyers, and that the fall in the price would depreciate all securities, so the plan is to form a consortium, consisting of the Reichsbank, the joint-stock banks, and the Darlehnskassen. The Darlehnskassen and, to an extent, the Reichsbank, will provide the capital for the absorption of war loans, and the Reichsbank and branches will take up the stock as it is offered for sale. The stock so absorbed will be gradually redistributed over a number of years through the Reichsbank and the joint-stock banks.

Q.—What was Germany's financial condition in 1918?

A.—It was claimed by British financial papers that in January, 1918, the notes then in circulation in Germany had passed the $4,000,000,000 mark.

The details were given as follows:

	(round numbers)
Reichsbank notes	$2,800,000,000
Treasury notes	87,500,000
Loan notes	1,565,000,000
Total	$4,442,500,000

These figures, it will be noted, are a little lower than others cited by other calculators. The financial war statements of all the nations lend themselves, of course, to all sorts of statements—according to whatever one may want to prove.

Q.—Did the war increase Germany's governmental expenses?

A.—It laid a steadily enlarging burden on all the nations, and Germany had to carry a constantly growing load. It was reported early in 1918 that the ordinary receipts and expenditures of the German budget for 1918 balance at $1,830,000,000, as compared with approximately $1,250,000,000 in the previous year. The increase was said to be due mainly to the higher amount required for interest on the national debt.

Q.—Can Germany pay her internal debts?

A.—In August, 1917, a German authority said that the burden of interest alone must inevitably cripple her internal economy. The interest then was figured as $1,750,000,000 annually. (*U. S. War Dictionary*).

Q.—What classes paid the most income in Prussia in 1918?

A.—The wealthy classes did, as they were doing everywhere, in so far as actual individual amounts of money were concerned. But the backbone of taxation for income was furnished by the people of small incomes. Thus 54 per cent of the number of taxpayers came from the people with annual incomes from $225 to $750 and the next class (incomes of $750 to $2,375) furnished 19 per cent of the taxpayers.

Q.—Had the general German incomes increased?

A.—Not the general incomes, but there was a large increase among the trades-

people and certain business men and industrials. It was due, no doubt, to war profits, as in the other belligerent countries. Thus the increases of Prussia's taxpayers paying on incomes of $6,000 to $25,000 had jumped by 8 per cent, incomes from $25,000 to $125,000 had increased 27 per cent, those of $125,000 to $250,000 had increased by 40 per cent, and the jump in incomes of more than $250,000 a year was actually 47 per cent.

Q.—Are German war taxes falling heavily on the small people?

A.—The Prussian Kingdom's taxes had begun, by 1917, to reach further than ever before for the small incomes, while increasing for the larger ones. At the end of the third year of the war the actual number of taxpayers in the income classes up to $225 had increased from 36.7 per cent to 37.5 per cent of the whole.

If the incomes above $750 are taken it is found that while the number of taxpayers decreased from 888,000 to 842,000 —that is, by 5 per cent—the total income increased from $1,400,000,000 to $1,900,000,000, or by 7.4 per cent, making an increase in average income for this class of 13.4 per cent.

Q.—How did the German people stand the war financially?

A.—The figures are very confusing because, in the first place, they were given in elaborately "camouflaging" form by German authorities and in the second place they have been re-shaped and restated as they passed through the censorship of Germany's European antagonists. We have, however, a fairly reliable indication of the internal financial condition in a report of the Kingdom of Prussia.

According to the figures, the year 1916, as compared with the year 1914, showed a decrease of 2.2 per cent in the number of individual taxpayers, and a decrease of 5.3 per cent in the number of companies, etc., paying taxes, the latter due, presumably, to the shutting down, for one cause or another, of many concerns. On the other hand, the total income coming under tax had risen from $4,525,000,000 in 1914 to $4,700,000,000 in 1916, making an increase from $605 per capita of population to $625.

Q.—Did very many Germans become rich through the war?

A.—The percentage increases in high annual incomes were surprising, but this did not mean that the increase by individuals was very great.

The number of so-called "millionaires" —that is, people with annual incomes of more than 1,000,000 marks ($230,000)— rose from twenty-seven in 1896 to ninety-one in 1914, and to 134 in 1916 in Prussia alone.

Q.—Did German business increase during the war?

A.—The returns of the Reichsbank for January 7, 1918, showed a total clearing business of the Reichsbank for 1917 of $23,000,000,000, as compared with 16 billions in 1916, 14 billions in 1915, 16 billions in 1914, and 17 billions in 1913, the last complete year of peace. The explanation given by the *Frankfurter Zeitung* for the increase in 1917 was the issue of war loans, combined with increased Stock Exchange business and the decreased purchasing power of money. Further statistics of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* gave the increase in capital by existing companies and the issue of shares by new companies as 33 billions for the first half-year of 1917 and 70 billions for the second half, the main part of the rise in the second half-year being due by the increase in capital of 37 billions in November by anilin concerns.

Q.—Did the Franco-Prussian War cost much?

A.—Comparatively little in money actually spent for war. The Treasury Department's experts figure as follows:

1870-1871	France	$1,580,000,000
	Germany	$954,400,000

Q.—How much did the Franco-Prussian War cost per day?

A.—From the declaration of war to the signing of peace, the war lasted exactly 299 days. For that period (part of which saw no fighting at all), the daily cost to Germany was $3,182,000, and France's daily cost was $5,267,000.

Q.—Did Turkey get much money from Germany?

A.—A German expert, Emil Zimmermann, estimated in May, 1917, that Germany had advanced to Turkey nearly 3,000,000,000 marks ($714,000,000) up to that time.

Q.—How did the Austro-Hungarian State Bank help to finance the war?

A.—The first direct call which was made upon the bank was based upon an agreement of August 14, 1914. The two Governments (Austria and Hungary) took up 2,000,000,000 crowns (at normal exchange the Austro-Hungarian crown is worth $0.2026) against deposit of treasury bills to the amount of 2,666,000,000 crowns, redeemable in gold and bearing interest at 5 per cent. A second agreement (October 7, 1914) allowed the Governments to borrow not more than 2,000,000,000 crowns, and a supplementary agreement of April 12, 1915, placed a further 800,000,000 crowns at their disposal on the same terms.

Q.—Did Austria depend heavily on the State Bank?

A.—It did. In the middle of 1915 the Governments again had recourse to the bank and this made it necessary for the directors to make a general decision on the whole attitude toward Government applications for loans during the war. They gave their consent to the Government applications, on conditions that recourse should be had to the bank only when no other method of obtaining money was practicable.

The various agreements have been made at various dates from July 15, 1915, to November 24, 1917, under each of which the Governments have been authorized to borrow 1,500,000,000 crowns against promissory notes, the definite allocation of which is to take place not later than six months after the conclusion of peace. The amount actually borrowed in virtue of these agreements by December 7, 1917, was 13,200,000,000 crowns.

Q.—Did Austria ever make any reports as to internal finances?

A.—The first statement of the Austro-Hungarian State Bank since the outbreak of the war was made on December 7, 1917. It was not complete, but it showed the gold reserve at that date to be $55,000,000, as against $257,800,000 at the end of July, 1914, and note circulation to be $7,375,000,000, as against $433,500,000. This gold reserve was the smallest of any European state bank except those of Norway and Denmark. The note circulation was $2,900,000,000 larger than that of any other bank except the Bank of Russia.

Q.—Did Germany attempt to reimburse herself for war costs from the countries she conquered?

A.—Responsible German officials have been quoted as declaring that only through war indemnities could the German Government pay the vast costs of the struggle. Certainly the acts of the military commanders have been in accord with this principle. On no pretext save that of the power to demand it, Belgian and French cities were levied upon for huge sums under penalty of destruction.

M. André Cheradome made a list early in 1918 of "booty" of all kinds seized by the Germans:

(a) *"Human Material."* The millions of Allied subjects made to labor for Germany.

(b) *War Material.* Everything from guns and munitions to thousands of miles of railways.

(c) *Foodstuffs.* Everywhere horses, cattle and food materials have been seized.

(d) *Raw Materials.* Mines, minerals and textile materials have been taken over in all occupied territories. In northern France alone the invaders secured $110,000,000 worth of wool. Without the coal and iron they got in France they could not have continued the war.

(e) *Industrial Plants.* Motors, machines, mills and looms have been systematically removed and sent back to Germany.

(f) *Furniture.* There has been a regular business of shipping back stolen household goods in vast quantities.

(g) *Works of Art.* Priceless art treasures has been taken from museums, churches, and private homes.

(h) *War Levies.* Requisitions, fines, taxes and forced loans have run into many millions of dollars.

(i) *Coin, Jewels and Securities.* All sorts of valuables have been removed by order from banks, and private safes. All the deposits of Allied subjects in Belgian banks, to the amount of $120,000,000, were thus seized as plunder.

This total, impossible to estimate, must run up to several billion dollars—of course entirely apart from the irresponsible plundering of individual soldiers and officers.

In addition, the treaty signed with the Bolsheviki government in the summer of 1918 provided that Russia should pay Germany six billion marks (about $1,500,000,000).

GERMANY (INDUSTRIAL STRUCTURE)

Q.—What was the internal condition of Germany in 1918?

A.—The iron-clad censorship of the German Government has prevented us from knowing as exactly as we should like, and individual reports of travelers are varying or conflicting. Some things, however, are certain. The nation was dangerously divided in its sentiment as to the war. The tremendous traffic from east to west and north to south had put the country's railroads in bad condition, both as to rolling stock and roadbed. There was practically no travel except for government purposes, a prohibitive tax being placed upon passenger tickets for all civilians. No freight or express was accepted except for the Government's use against the enemy. Many raw materials, particularly cotton, were lacking, and people were dying of disease and starvation.

The *Neue Wiener Journal*, of Vienna, stated on December 15, 1917, that in the Austrian capital during 1917, 45,000 people died of all diseases. In comparison, to this there were but 24,000 births. Of the total number of deaths 12,000 were caused by tuberculosis, a disease which was steadily increasing because of the poor food conditions.

Q.—Just how does all Germany compare in size with us?

A.—In size all Germany is not so big as Texas. In fact, Germany could be put into Texas, and there still would be enough of Texas unoccupied to accommodate New York and New Jersey, or Arkansas and Rhode Island, or all of Illinois except a tiny edge.

Or if you want to figure it another way, the United States could take in fifteen German Empires.

Q.—How does German man-power compare with American?

A.—Germany has about 65 per cent of the population we have. (Germany had 65 million people in 1910, and we had an estimated population of 102 million in 1917.) But, comparing the areas of the two countries, the German population is proportionately 14¾ times bigger than ours—or, rather, if the United States were as densely populated, instead of having 102 millions we would have 950 millions, or almost a billion people!

Q.—What was the chief feature of German advance before the war?

A.—The systematic and wholesale application of scientific research to every industrial operation from coal mining to toy-making. Since the Franco-Prussian War, Germany has made industrial science (or scientific industry) the most important part of her whole structure. For more than a generation it has not been the "shop-foreman" or the "superintendent" who played the big part in her industrial establishments. It has been the chemist, the analyst, the "Herr Professor" (of everything from mathematics to astronomy), whose ability guided the great factories and the great operations of commerce.

Q.—With whom did Germany do the biggest business during peace?

A.—In 1913 and 1912 she did her biggest all-round business, counting both exports and imports, with the United States and Russia. Great Britain was a close third. Other countries with which she did a major business were France, Italy, Holland, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Argentina, British India, Australia, Brazil, and Chile. Her trade with British West Africa and Egypt had been very large in 1912, but it had fallen away astonishingly in 1913.

Q.—What does Germany export mostly?

A.—Her exports in 1913 were, in the order of their value: machinery, iron manufactures, coal, cotton goods, woollens, sugar (beet), paper and paper goods, furs, silk goods, coke, aniline dyes, rye, clothing, copper goods, leather goods, toys, wheat, books, rails and sleepers, indigo, chinaware, electric lamps and telegraph cable.

Q.—What does Germany need to import?

A.—In 1913 she imported raw cotton, wheat, raw wool, barley, copper, skins and hides, iron ore, coffee, coal, eggs, furs, nitrate, raw silk, bran, rubber, lard, tobacco, linseed, butter, oil-cake, horses, rice, maize and rye.

Q.—Why do we hear so much of the dye industry?

A.—Partly because dyes are one of the very big factors of commerce. The ancient city of Tyre, mentioned in the Bible for its grandeur, owed much of its wealth to its dye—the still famous Tyrian purple, which was obtained from a sea-slug. There is hardly an article of manufacture that does not need at least a little color on it somewhere; and the huge textile industries depend on coloring matter as much as they do on the original raw materials of wool and cotton. It is true that if the world came to a sharp pinch, we could use textiles as they come from the looms—but a great part of the world's beauty and its industrial art would vanish with the vanishing of dyes.

Q.—Is the dye industry vital to Germany's wealth?

A.—No. From the mere financial point of view, her artificial dye industry ranks far below her production of machinery, iron and iron goods, cotton, woollen, paper and silk goods, etc., as expressed in values of exports. In 1913 the total value of exported dyes was less than 35 millions.

Q.—What, then, was the overwhelming importance of the dye industry?

A.—To the rest of the world its great importance was in the fact that the world had permitted itself to depend on the German dyes. When these were cut off suddenly by war, their lack was felt acutely. Even though a given industry might need only a very small quantity, it was an absolute necessity that could not be immediately supplied from other sources. To Germany herself, the industry represented one that earned great profits on a small bulk of material. Far more important, however, was the fact that it was one of the corner-stones in her vast system of by-product utilization.

Q.—What is a by-product?

A.—It is a product produced "on the side" incidentally. Thus saw-dust is a by-product. Dripping is a by-product. Until comparatively recent time, the innumerable by-products of industries were used only as they came. In many, perhaps most cases they were allowed to go to waste. Even those who saved by-products zealously did not go beyond that to expand them. They remained "on the side." To-day, however, we perceive that by-products are monumental parts of modern industry and in coming years even the greatest will have to be buttressed all around with systems of intense by-product utilization.

Q.—Of what are dyes a by-product?

A.—Of coal-tar—and here we find a great fundamental source of modern Germany's industrial strength. One of the worst wastefulnesses in world industry is in burning coal. Of all ways of using coal, the production of coke in the iron and steel industry is one of leading importance. Thus, almost one-seventh of America's coal is made into coke; but the American method of steel-making, while excellent for its specific purpose, wastes at least two-thirds of this coke without gaining by-products. The German method not only saves but intensifies the production of the coal by-products. Dye is only one of them. An enormous variety of drugs (aspirin, saccharin and dozens more), industrial chemicals and important basic material for high explosives come from the same source.

Q.—Did Germany have natural sources of dyes?

A.—Germany had within her boundaries practically no natural sources of dyes. Indigo, the leading blue dye of the world, was made from a plant raised in India. Red came largely from the cochineal insect of Mexico and Africa. The other colors came from ores, earths and plants scattered over the world.

Q.—What was the first great German dye discovery?

A.—It was hardly a discovery, unless you apply the word "discovery" to a work of almost twenty years of patient, incessant search for a certain method to do a certain thing. The first big German dye-discovery or invention was the way to make indigo—that is, to make "synthetically" a dye that, up to that time, had been of purely vegetable origin. One of the big German industrial firms in the southern part of Germany where industry and technical science first began their partnership, had kept not one, but a whole corps of chemists at work on the problem before it was solved. It is recorded that the cost to that concern was $3,750,000 before the way was found; but it paid. The first man to produce a synthetic indigo was Professor von Bayer; but the cost of the product by his process was pretty high, and it was not until other processes were perfected that the dye industry sprang into a magnitude that amazed Germany.

Q.—How is synthetic indigo made?

A.—The starting point is naphthalene. After intricate processes, there is produced a substance known as indigotine. This product again must pass through long chemical processes before the paste or powder is obtained for the market.

Q.—Where did natural indigo come from?

A.—England, through her ownership of India, had a practical monopoly of the world's supply of this blue, for almost all of it came from immense British plantations in the Indian province of Bengal. In the early part of the nineteenth century the term "indigo planter" was synonymous with "nabob." The British planters in one district alone (North Behar) drew from this plant incomes that aggregated $5,000,000 a year in a country where the laborers' monthly wages were then counted actually by pennies. The area under cultivation throughout Bengal was enormous, and, as the supply of labor was equally unlimited, a golden flood poured in on the planters and into the United Kingdom. To-day the indigo fields have shrunk to 380,000 acres, and the income is only $1,950,000 for all India—a tiny bit more than $5 an acre.

Q.—What is natural indigo?

A.—It is a plant that grows from 3 to 5 feet high, doing best in India and Java. Its name is Indigofera Sumatrana. It contains the coloring matter, which is made into the blue dye known as "indigo," and it furnishes two crops a year.

Q.—What are the chief natural dyes?

A.—Besides indigo, there is the madder root, making a red; the logwood tree of the American tropics, which produces a reddish color that in turn gives us black, dark gray, blues, purples and greens when employed with divers chemicals; fustic, from a tropical mulberry that gives yellow; cochineal, from a tiny insect found on cactus, that gives the richest crimsons and scarlets we know; mineral earths, which produce chrome yellow, Prussian blue, manganese brown, iron buff, ochre, etc.

Q.—What other dyes have Germans discovered?

A.—The most notable was alizarin red, formerly made from the madder root. Two German chemists made it from coal-tar in 1869. This date is of historical interest, for it was the first instance of the artificial production of a vegetable dyestuff. It was an Englishman, however, Sir W. H. Perkins, who prepared the first aniline dye in 1856. He produced a mauve coloring matter, but this was a quite new product and did not replace any vegetable dye. It is interesting to know that the bright red trousers which early in the war made the French so conspicuous a target for German bullets, could no longer be made, as the alizarin dye which was used for them was a German monopoly. Before the Germans succeeded in making it, the dye was a French monopoly, but since then the cultivation of the madder root in France has ceased entirely.

Q.—Has Germany accumulated great stores of dyestuffs?

A.—The British textile journals appear to doubt it, and it is difficult to know the actual position. The former United States Consul at Breslau informed a meeting of the Philadelphia hosiery manufacturers that dyestuffs were one of three commodities which were being held in surplus in Germany. The others were sulphuric acid and Portland cement.

We must remember that the manufacture of explosives is a part of the coal-tar industries of Germany, and that in their thrift they probably are missing no opportunity for storing by-products.

Q.—Did not the "Deutschland" bring us dye during war?

A.—Yes. The submarine freight vessel *Deutschland* brought about 700 tons—an insignificant amount as compared with our annual consumption of about 35,000 tons, but an eagerly welcomed shipment because of the intense stringency in dyes from which America was then suffering. The price paid was so high that it is said the whole cost of the *Deutschland* was defrayed by the profit made from this one trip.

Q.—Did natural indigo get a market again when war occurred?

A.—Apparently it did not recover very much of a place. It was reported in March, 1918, that the natural indigo stock taken over by the British Government at the beginning of war had been sold; and the figures showed that the total for the three years of war had been only 267 tons, which cost the government $1,760,000. It was taken over because it had been

feared that, owing to the inevitable shortage of synthetic indigo, the natural indigo might get into the hands of a small group. One hundred tons were sold to the French Government, and the remainder gradually disposed of to the domestic trade, both for home consumption and for export. The accounts show a profit of $17,300.

Q.—Did the English make synthetic indigo?

A.—The production of synthetic dyestuffs in Great Britain was reported in 1918 as three times as large as before the war, so that prices dropped in 1917.

Q.—Has Germany increased her coal mining?

A.—The coal production of the country—including lignite—rose from 76,200,000 tons in 1887 to 259,400,000 tons in 1912. The gain of 240 per cent is equaled by no other country except the United States.

Q.—Did Germany aid her steel manufacturers?

A.—The steel industry, by sheer virtue of its overwhelming, absolutely vital, necessity to the empire at war, became an object of governmental solicitude as soon as the struggle began. It does not appear that any particular laws were passed to grant government funds to the industry or otherwise to give official financial assistance; but the huge government orders had the same effect.

Just what laws were passed, or what regulations were made, to regulate the relations between the steel industries and the public is not clear. So far as labor is concerned, it is known that in the first three years of the war the German iron and steel industry subscribed about 350 millions of marks ($83,000,000) to relief work.

Q.—Have steel-workers' wages advanced?

A.—That wages have been advanced heavily is known. Government action in regard to wages, which affected many industries, appears to have affected the steel industry most heavily, perhaps because of the big number of men they employed. The steel manufacturers have expressed the view several times at conferences that wages had advanced to a point where they would handicap Germany's price-competition with other nations after war. On the other hand, the steel-makers' profits have been enormous (as in every country), and, in addition, the war-profits tax has been lighter than it has been in Great Britain.

Q.—Has Germany built more railroads than other nations?

A.—Not in mileage, as compared with the United States, but in proportion she did nearly what we did from 1890 to 1910. In that period we increased our railroad mileage 44 per cent, and Germany increased her mileage 42 per cent.

Q.—What does Germany save by her economies and scientific thrift?

A.—One could only guess. Not even the German statisticians, meticulous as they are, have ventured to attempt any specific figures. But we know, in large figures, how coal and by-products are wasted by the other large industrial nations, and we know that a large percentage of such waste has been eliminated in Germany. This alone enables us to make a large general estimate that the German industrial economies amount to probably more than a thousand million dollars a year. Lord Haldane once said, in a speech on England's technical needs, that if English technicians would devote themselves to economies similar to the German, their work would save the United Kingdom at least 2½ billions of dollars a year—and Lord Haldane is not an ordinary orator, but a speaker of scientific precision.

Q.—How do the Germans keep their economical processes secret?

A.—They do not—that is the most extraordinary part of the story of their competition with other nations. Of course, they have thousands on thousands of trade-secrets—patents, etc., like the rest of us. But their big industrial economies, such as the utilizations of coal and coke, the extraction of every possible by-product, the attainment of the utmost values from ore, etc., are not secrets at all. The whole world knows exactly what they are, or almost exactly. In fact, every technical expert in the world has for years subscribed, as a matter of course, to German technical publications if he meant seriously to keep himself posted thoroughly in his own field. The German and the French technical publications have run a close race in excellence for many years. A great part of the world's knowl-

edge would be non-existent except for them. Indeed, a big part of the scientific news that comes to the English and American public is based on previous publications in the technical press of these two nations.

Q.—Then why did other nations not use these economies?

A.—For very many reasons. One was the human opposition to great and sudden changes. Another was the fact that the German industries, being largely new, were started right, while the industries of older nations were reared on older foundations—and it was no light task to reform, remodel or perhaps destroy and reconstruct these mammoth industrial organizations and plants. For instance, our steel industry is based on a method entirely different from that of the Germans. It is true that by their method they get not only steel, but they get coke and all its innumerable by-products from explosives to saccharine. But to rebuild our enormous steel industry would entail such huge losses that all the profits to be made could not repay them for many, many years. Naturally, business men do not feel like undertaking such tasks, but prefer to go on as they are. The war, however, has made some of the very great changes actually inevitable, and it is a cheering thing to know that at least part of the American billions is going into the construction of just such industrial plants as Germany has.

Q.—Did German ammunition manufacturers profit or lose during war?

A.—The Krupp company reported for the fiscal year 1917 gross profits of $28,725,000, against $28,340,000 in 1916, and $32,065,000 in 1915. Net profit was $10,245,000, against $12,415,000 and $21,615,000 in the two preceding years, and the dividend 10 per cent, against 12 in the three preceding years, and 14 in 1913. The trebling of tax payments since 1915 caused the heavy drop in net receipts.

Q.—Are the Krupp works near the Rhine?

A.—Yes. The city of Essen, which is largely Krupp, is on the Rhine toward the Dutch border. The Rhine-Ruhr district, where this city is situated, is one of the world's most remarkable manufacturing districts. Within a few miles of each other are the large cities of Essen (with the Krupp gun works), Elberfield-Barmen, Düsseldorf, Duisburg, Dortmund, Remscheid and Mülheim. While iron is the principal industry, scarcely anything can be named which is not made within this twenty-five mile radius.

Q.—What are Germany's other industrial centers?

A.—The other great manufacturing districts are in Bavaria, which is famous for its toys, and Saxony for its iron furnaces. The finest coal fields are in Lorraine, along the river Ruhr, and in Silesia.

Q.—How and when did Germany become an iron producer?

A.—She first became powerful as a factor in the iron industry by her application of new and revolutionary principles to the smelting ovens. At the same time she so improved her capacity that instead of exporting iron ore she had to buy it.

The excess of iron ore exports of more than 700,000 tons for 1887 was converted by 1912 into an excess of imports by nearly 10,000,000 tons. During the same period pig-iron production rose from 4,024,000 to 17,853,000 tons. From 1886 to 1910, Germany increased its steel production 1,335 per cent, the United States 910 per cent and England 154 per cent.

Q.—Did the Germans find supplies in Northern France worth $2,000,000,000?

A.—It is impossible to tell. That is the figure the Germans published. Whether it is correct or not has not been stated by the Belgian and French authorities. It is admitted that vast stores of cotton and woollen goods, raw cotton and wool, and so forth, were left undestroyed in the hasty retirement to the Marne, in the great industrial districts about Lille.

Q.—Have the Germans found substitutes for wool and cotton?

A.—They claim to have done so. Apparently, they must be using something, as all supplies of cotton they can get from Asia Minor would certainly be used in the making of explosives, and although they will, no doubt, have obtained considerable quantities of wool from Bulgaria and Turkey, these countries could have sent them only a minimum of the amount of wool they formerly obtained from abroad.

One plant from which a fiber is obtained, which is being used by spinners and weavers in Germany instead of cot-

ton, wool and jute, is called the typha, and is a sort of cat-tail that grows extensively in marshes. The 1916 crop was estimated as high as six million tons, and the yield of the finished product is 10 per cent of this. Leading German merchants and bankers have subscribed capital for the manufacture of the new cloth. One favorable quality of the typha is that it flourishes on land too poor for the growing of cereal crops. It can be harvested from June until the frosts come.

Q.—Could an Australian wool embargo strangle the German textile industry?

A.—Plenty of wool is obtainable from other countries. Even merino can be got from Uruguay in large quantities. The following list of the wool production of the countries then neutral was prepared by American experts, and published in Boston in 1914:

	Lbs.
Europe—	
Spain	52,000,000
Greece	14,000,000
Asia—	
China	50,000,000
Persia	12,000,000
America—	
United States	296,000,000
Mexico	7,000,000
Argentine	326,000,000
Uruguay	157,000,000
Chile	29,000,000
Peru	10,000,000
Central America and Brazil	2,000,000
Total	955,000,000

The Central Powers, Bulgaria and Turkey, together produce 248,000,000 lbs. The Australian production in 1914-15 was 642,000,000 lbs.

Q.—Can the Germans really make synthetic rubber?

A.—It is not impossible. Every chemist knows that synthetic rubber can be made. The chief trouble about it is that it costs more than natural rubber. In Germany's war-emergency, that objection may have become minor.

Rubber is merely the sap of a certain kind of tree. One way known to make synthetic rubber is from starch, best obtained from potatoes, but it requires a lot.

An annual production of 10,000,000 pounds of rubber might require 500,000,000 pounds of potatoes. The starch is converted into acetone and butyl alcohol.

A process known to have been at least partially developed by a German company is based on the use of acetone. This is obtainable from calcium carbide, which is very cheap, indeed.

Q.—When did Germany become a big machinery maker?

A.—She began to make strides about 1882. The number of persons employed in the machine industry increased 229 per cent from 1882 till 1907, and more than 100 per cent was recorded in mining and smelting, earths and stone, chemicals, paper, printing, and building. From 1895-1907 only four industries—textiles, woodworking, foods and beverages, and printing—failed to increase their power more than 100 per cent, while the building trade gained 308 and machinery 557 per cent, and other industries between 100 and 200 per cent.

Q.—Is it true that Germany has no real seaports?

A.—She has no great port directly on the sea. Hamburg (with maritime business ranking next only to New York, Liverpool and London) and Bremen, with their outlying stations of Wilhelmshaven, Bremerhaven and Cuxhaven, are the only ports west of the peninsula of Schleswig-Holstein, and so accessible to large transatlantic traffic, and these are both some distance from the sea, Hamburg being on the river Elbe and Bremen on the river Weser.

Q.—Can Germany not reach the sea through the Rhine?

A.—To use her great river, the Rhine, Germany must go through Holland (where the name changes to the Waal) to reach the North Sea. Much of her shipping is done through the foreign ports of Antwerp and Amsterdam.

But where nature has denied them, the Germans have supplied the want by ingenuity. The Rhine has been dredged one hundred and fifty miles from its mouth for navigation by vessels of fair sea-going capacity. The whole of Germany is cut by a network of canals, the most famous of which is the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal from Kiel on the Baltic to Brunsbüttel at the mouth of the Elbe on the North Sea.

Q.—How did Germany's marine grow?

A.—In the 25 years from 1888 to 1913, Germany's merchant marine grew from

470,000 net registered tonnage to 2,655,000. Her import trade grew from 740 million (dollars) to 2 billion 610 million, and her exports grew from 747 million to 2 billion 165 million. Germany's total foreign trade gained 214 per cent, against 173 per cent gained by the United States, 113 per cent by Great Britain, and 98 per cent by France.

Q.—Was the German marine entirely prostrated by the war?

A.—Practically so. There remained, however, a pretty lively sea-trade through the Baltic with Sweden, and the war-profits of the ships so engaged were high. Thus, at an auction sale in Rostock, a German Baltic port, a steamship was sold in 1917 for $637,500. Its cost when built in 1908 had been $122,500. Its earnings during 1912 had been 12 per cent, and during 1913 14 per cent. In 1914 it earned nothing. In 1915 it earned 5 per cent. In 1916 its earnings were 60 per cent.

Q.—Did the Germans recover their merchant vessels in Antwerp?

A.—Yes. When the war began, 37 German vessels were lying in Antwerp, and, of course, could not get out. It has been one of the mysteries of the war why either the Belgians or the British did not remove these ships. It may be that they delayed because of possible complications with Holland, since to send the ships to England would have made necessary passage through the Dutch-controlled mouth of the Scheldt. At any rate, the ships were left in Antwerp, and when the Germans captured the city they thus recaptured their ships.

Q.—Are the German cities as large as ours?

A.—Germany has no cities as large as New York and Chicago in population, but Berlin, with 2 millions, has a population exceeded in America only by those two big cities. Of cities with more than 300,000 people, we have 18, while Germany has 11. Of cities with less than 300,000 and more than 100,000, we have 46, against Germany's 31. When it comes to cities next in rank of more than 50,000, we have 51 against Germany's 38.

Q.—What are the big cities of Germany?

A.—Berlin, Hamburg, Munich, Leipzig, Dresden, Cologne, Breslau, Frankfort, Düsseldorf, Nuremberg, Charlottenburg and Hanover are the cities with more than 300,000 people.

Q.—Are most of the big cities in Prussia?

A.—Of the 12 largest cities, 7 are in Prussia. The others are in Saxony and Bavaria. Of the whole list of German cities ranking over 50,000, Prussia has 53 as against 32 in the rest of Germany.

Q.—Did Germany get oil from Roumania?

A.—In the months of September to December, 1916, German armies conquered a part of Roumania, and occupied the city of Ploechti in the Prahova Valley, the center of one of the richest oil-fields in Europe. The oil-wells, however, were burned, and the oil-reservoirs destroyed. From time to time neutral newspapers have reported the restoration of the Roumanian oil industry to normal conditions.

Q.—How much oil might Germany get from Roumania's wells?

A.—In 1913 Roumania exported petroleum and so forth, to the value of 26 million dollars. It is known, however, that while some of the wells were worked with thorough science and with the best of modern machinery, a large part of the possible oil-territory remained undeveloped or practically so.

Q.—How much oil might Germany get from Batoum and the other Black Sea regions?

A.—The Baku district alone produced 7 million tons of oil in 1915, the last year for which there have been accurate figures.

Q.—Has Germany much forest land?

A.—Germany has an amazing area of forest land, considering the density of her population. The whole forest area is reckoned at 34½ million acres, divided into government forests, communal forests, private forests and forests maintained by societies. It is a tiny amount compared with the 550 million acres of American forest; but Germany manages to get a big income from her small area, to cut it freely and still conserve it and even improve it. Intensive forestry is the secret.

Q.—Did Germany buy more from us than she sold?

A.—No. Our sales to Germany ranged annually about 125 per cent of our purchases. A large proportion of our sales were supplies indispensable or at least highly important to Germany, such as cotton, while our purchases were largely goods that we could get from other sources or produce ourselves.

Q.—Whose trade is most important to Germany?

A.—As a customer, Great Britain was Germany's most valuable field for German exports. In 1913 Germany sold goods to the value of nearly 343 million dollars, which was far beyond the next best customer, Autsria-Hungary, whose purchases from Germany that year were 263 millions. In addition, Germany sent more than 100 millions' worth of exports to Australia, Canada and the other British possessions.

Q.—What did Great Britain buy most of?

A.—Beet sugar. German exports of this to the United Kingdom were more than 50 million dollars in 1913. Next in value were cotton goods and iron and steel manufactures each worth nearly 37 millions.

Q.—What did Germany buy mostly from England?

A.—Cottons and woollens and yarn lead the list with nearly 64 million dollars in 1913. Coal and coke follow with 25 million dollars' worth.

Q.—How much did we buy?

A.—German exports to the United States in 1913 were 177 million dollars' worth.

Q.—Are German imports under Government control?

A.—Mr. James W. Gerard says that shortly after the commencement of the war a great institution was formed called the Central Einkauf Gesellschaft (Central Importing Company). If a German manufacturer wishes to buy raw material for his factory he must purchase it through this board, which pools the orders and buys in bulk. The idea is to keep this enormously powerful agency after the war—not only to purchase necessary goods abroad at lower prices, but to prohibit the buying of foreign articles in most cases so that the people must patronize home industries.

Q.—Have many Germans emigrated lately?

A.—Hardly any. The flood of German emigration, very great at one time, stopped with extraordinary abruptness. In the last few years it has fallen away to almost nothing, and even the small emigration that there was showed a steady diminution annually. In 1913, the year before the war, only 26,000 people emigrated from all Germany.

Q.—Where did most of the emigrants go from?

A.—The largest number went from Prussia, which lost 13,000 people. Bavaria lost only 2,000.

Q.—When did German emigration decrease?

A.—In the decade 1881-90, there were 1,342,000 German emigrants, as against a total birth excess of 5,500,000; in the following decade there were still 528,000 emigrants to 7,300,000 net births; but in the decade 1901-10, when the birth excess rose to 8,670,000 the number of emigrants sank to 220,000, or 22,000 a year.

Q.—Was Germany always an industrial country?

A.—No. Within the memory of living men, the German States were mainly agricultural. "Even during the middle of the nineteenth century," says Professor Schapiro in his "Modern and Contemporaneous European History," "two generations after the industrial revolution had taken place in England, Germany was still largely a 'peasant land,' as only 30 per cent of her population then lived in towns of over 2,000. Few factories existed; hence there was practically no export of manufactured articles. . . . Her soil was generally poor, her harbors few, and her deposits of coal and iron were so inferior in quality that little mining was done."

GERMANY (POLITICAL STRUCTURE)

Q.—What is the form of the German Imperial Government?

A.—In principle and written law it *is* a union of all the States of Germany under an Imperial constitutional government. Thus its theory has elements of both British and American governmental structure. It is a Federal union of sovereign States, and these States are represented in the Federal Council (Bundesrath) of the Empire. Its ruling head is a hereditary monarch, and its actual representative of executive government before the national Parliament (Reichstag) is a Prime Minister (Imperial Chancellor) appointed by the Crown. Its Parliament has two houses. But in practice these points of resemblance vanish. Mr. Gerard remarks: "If the industrial populations had their fair share of representation in the Reichstag, they might perhaps even control that body. But . . . the Reichstag has only the power of public opinion, and the Germany of to-day is ruled by officials appointed from above downwards."

Q.—What makes Germany's practice differ from Great Britain's?

A.—It differs from Great Britain in practice because the British Prime Minister, while technically and under law appointed by the Crown, really is appointed on request or at will of the political party that gains a majority in the House of Commons. Thus the British Prime Minister is responsible only theoretically to the Crown and actually to Parliament. He stands or falls with his party and his successor is appointed at behest of the opposition that succeeds in overturning his majority. Furthermore, the King of England is ruler only in legal name. The British Prime Minister is the actual ruler. In Germany the Prime Minister (Imperial Chancellor or Reichskanzler) is responsible directly to the Crown (Emperor or Kaiser) and not to the Reichstag. The latter may vote heavily against his measures and still he may and does retain his office so long as the monarch chooses to keep him in power.

Q.—How does Germany's system differ from ours?

A.—We have no official resembling a Prime Minister. The actual and direct head of our Government is a President elected for a limited term. Our States, whatever their size, have absolutely equal representation in the U. S. Senate while the German States have differing representations, according to size. Our Senators are elected, while the members to the Bundesrath are appointed by the Governments of the individual States. No one American State has hegemony in the United States through the Senate, whereas Prussia has hegemony in the Imperial Bundesrath, by virtue of the very large number of Prussian members.

Q.—Is Prussian hegemony a structural part of the German Empire?

A.—Yes; to the extent that the King of Prussia is constitutionally Emperor of Germany, and that Prussia's members to the upper Federal House (Bundesrath) are numerous enough to overbalance the votes of the rest. The extreme present power of the Bundesrath, however, is not wholly structural, and arises at least in part from the fact that the Reichstag (the lower house which is the popular assembly) has permitted many of its powers to lapse and furthermore has for many years been split into many groups of smaller or larger political parties and factions that can hardly unite sufficiently to make a decisive or imposing majority against the official government.

Q.—Must our Senators vote as the States instruct them?

A.—As a matter of political expediency, and in conformance with American principles, they usually meet an expressed desire of a majority of the people of their States. This is sometimes expressed through a Legislature, and may be practically a mandate. But no Senator need conform unless he choose. The two Senators from any one State may, and sometimes do, vote on opposite sides. The members of the Bundesrath, to the contrary, vote specifically as instructed and the representatives of each State cast their votes as a unit.

Q.—Must the Imperial Chancellor be Prussian?

A.—No. It has been habitual for German Emperors (being Prussian) to ap-

point Prussians to the post, but there is no law for or against it The habit was broken in November, 1917, when Count George V. von Hertling, a Bavarian, was appointed to succeed Dr. Georg Michaelis, a Prussian.

Q.—Can any but a Hohenzollern become Emperor under the Constitution?

A.—No. The Constitution vests "the supreme direction of the military and political affairs" of the German Empire in the King of Prussia under the title of "Deutscher Kaiser" (German Emperor), and provides furthermore that the title shall be hereditary in the House of Hohenzollern.

Q.—What is the German Constitution?

A.—It is a written Constitution adopted for the newly formed German Empire April 16, 1874. In many of its provisions it is identical with the Constitution that had been adopted by the old North German Confederation, the union of German States that existed before the Franco-Prussian War. This original Constitution was written largely by Bismarck, was accepted by the Princes of the various States, and was ratified by a convention chosen for the purpose by universal suffrage.

Q.—Is it like the Constitutions of other countries?

A.—On the surface only, in the sense that all written Constitutions are guarantees for the people, limiting the powers of the official government. It contains what are always considered two large organic popular guarantees: a legislative popular assembly elected by universal suffrage, and a provision that this assembly shall hold the purse-strings; *i.e.*, wield the power of granting or withholding revenues desired by the government.

Q.—What prevents liberal rule under the German Constitution?

A.—In part, the structural defects noted in a preceding answer concerning Prussian hegemony. In part, the political practice, which in itself is not prescribed by the Constitution, and could be radically changed if the people united to demand and enforce it. It would have to be a decidedly revolutionary change, however. To understand these necessary changes it is necessary first to understand the structural defects in the political edifice of Prussia, because that State's power in the Federal (Imperial) government is a vital feature of all possible reform.

Q.—How is Prussia governed?

A.—The State government of Prussia is by a House of Representatives (Landtag), consisting of two chambers, the upper being known as "Herrenhaus" (House of Lords), and the lower as Chamber of Deputies. The King, as executive head of the Government, is assisted by a council of ministers whom he himself appoints.

Q.—Is the Herrenhaus at all like our State Senates?

A.—No. The principle is entirely different. The members are not elected by the people but are either appointed by the Crown or hold office by virtue of qualifications described in the Prussian Constitution, which dates back to 1850, and thus is far from modern. Under it the Herrenhaus has as members: (1) Royal Princes, (2) about 50 heads of a territorial nobility formed by the King, (3) a number of life-peers chosen by the King from land-owners, manufacturers and "national celebrities," (4) eight titled noblemen elected in the eight older Prussian provinces by all the resident land-owners, (5) representatives of the universities, heads of chapters, and burgomasters of towns with more than 50,000 population, (6) an unlimited number of members nominated by the King for life or for a lesser period.

Q.—Is this less democratic than the British House of Lords?

A.—In outward structure it looks actually less undemocratic. The British House of Lords consists overwhelmingly of hereditary Peers. There are no representatives, as such, of the industries and professions except for about 26 Archbishops and Bishops of the Church of England and 6 Law Lords in a body of about 660 members. In practice, however, there is a decided difference. Thus, though the King of England can create

new Peers at will, in actuality they are created almost wholly by advice and wish of the ruling party. In addition, Parliamentary reforms have in recent years greatly extended the power of the House of Commons and decreased that of the Lords. The House of Lords cannot, since 1910-11, veto a money bill (revenue or taxation bill) passed by the Commons, whereas the Prussian Herrenhaus can veto legislation by the Lower House. Furthermore, while the Herrenhaus has a minimum of hereditary members and a majority of some hundreds of representatives of commerce, industry, professions, etc., the royal appointive power makes them very reactionary and really places control with the autocratically minded "Junker class."

Q.—Just what is a "Junker"?

A.—It is a term that dates back to feudal times, when it meant a junior nobleman, a "young Herr." That meaning, of course, has long since disappeared, with the English term "squire," which meant practically the same thing, a "squire" being one of gentle blood who had not yet been made knight. To-day, while the term "Junker" may be applied to any member of a hereditary nobility, it is directly applied to the firmly conservative and aristocratic land-holders. Because these men represent most drastically the undemocratic, privileged classes, the term "Junker" has come to signify almost a political party in Germany. It is used by the liberal opposition as a term of satire and reproach, and in its slang use it has come to be applied to any swaggering, haughty fellow. It is used mostly as referring to Prussians.

Q.—How is the Prussian Lower House elected?

A.—It is elected by "universal franchise" provided for under the Prussian Constitution, but this same Constitution provides for a grouping of the franchise that makes it both in principle and fact a decisively unequal one. The voters are divided into three classes: (1) voters who pay the highest taxes to the amount of one-third of the whole direct taxes levied; (2) voters who pay the next highest amount; (3) the lowest taxed. Each class elects by ballot one-third of the members of an electoral college which in turn elects the representatives for each district to the Lower House. The gross defect in this system is that the first class of voters may be insignificant in number in any given district and yet can elect one-third of the representatives. In some districts less than a dozen may possess this power.

Q.—How does this work out in results?

A.—Roughly, it has been calculated that for all Prussia it gives only one-third of the representation to about 85 per cent of the population and gives the other 15 per cent of the voters two-thirds of the Lower House, thus granting the Junker and capitalist classes an invincible majority.

Q.—What was the political contest in Prussia in 1917-1918 about?

A.—It was over a determined attempt to reform the suffrage and thus to democratize the composition of the Lower House. The Emperor's approval of the reform gave it national importance in itself, quite apart from the fact that democratization of Prussia would mean a mighty impetus toward national democratization. Prussian reform had been a national issue in Germany for several years before the war. It began in 1910 when the Government introduced a bill changing the class voting system by putting voters of superior education into the second class, regardless of taxation, and abolishing indirect voting and thus largely reducing the over-balance of the first class. Socialists and Liberals refused the measure as inadequate. The Junker classes denounced it as revolutionary. It was withdrawn.

Q.—Did this kill the movement for reform?

A.—No. It accentuated it. It was made a subject of Reichstag agitation, and in the 1912 elections to the Reichstag, the Social Democrats gained 57 members, giving them 110 altogether. This, with the 90 members elected by the Liberals and the Radicals, gave the parties of opposition ("the Left" as it is called in European political parlance) an actual numerical majority, and made the Socialists the largest single party in the Reichstag. After the war began, the struggle was resumed in Prussia. The Imperial Chancellor (as the Prussian Minister of State) introduced a reform bill, backed by the Emperor's emphatic declarations in support. Thus the Prussian

Junkers were suddenly lined up against the government instead of being the supporters of it. They fought bitterly and uncompromisingly. Even the Emperor's threat of dissolution and new elections did not induce them to cease opposition or to abandon their plainly uttered purpose of emasculating any measure that might pass.

Q.—Does politics alone give Prussia her big place in Germany?

A.—Prussia is the "hustler" of Germany. Before the Franco-Prussian War, the other German States were very easy-going, both politically and socially. They were content with a loose national federation that left them a ready prey to any other nation. They had done little to develop commerce or manufactures. Their science was great, but it was speculative or theoretical, being largely "art for art's sake," and thus limited largely to the laboratory or the university. The crude but intensely alive Prussia gave these latent German powers an impetus for practical achievement. Prussia made an iron whole out of the many widely varying State armies. It was largely Prussia that flung railroads through the empire.

Q.—Do the other States like Prussia?

A.—As a rule, the general interests of all are so closely knit with the Federation, that they do not raise the issue of Prussian hegemony. But when there arise questions with sharply defined State interests, there is very positive opposition to the big State. Decided jealousy exists between Prussia and Bavaria, the latter State being extremely insistent on its rights and dignity.

Q.—Are the Prussians like the other Germans?

A.—They are very unlike the rest. It is essentially the Prussian of the flat north country who has given the world the idea that the Germans are all a very blond type, with light blue eyes and features that, on the whole, express a strenuous and not particularly amiable character. As a matter of fact, while the Germans, like all the Germanic races, including the English, are, as a race, fair and blue-eyed, the great mass of Germany, to the south of Prussia, is far darker than the Prussians or the "Platt-Deutsche," as the other Germans call the northernmost Prussians. The Bavarians' hair and beards incline to a golden brown. The Württembergers are extremely dark—brunette, and even black-haired, looking rather Spanish in many cases. There really is a far greater difference between the northern and southern Germans than there is between our northerners and southerners.

Q.—Do the southern Germans hate the Prussians?

A.—There has always been a very general feeling of intellectual disdain for the Prussian. His marked practical abilities are recognized, though not always admired, and his faults also are recognized and pretty sharply characterized. He is accounted crude and sordid by the southern Germans, and the appellation "Preuss" used by them is not complimentary. But events have shown that the whole German people has been trained to obey its rulers, to the extent of violating all other obligations. And the relentless, organizing Prussian has ruled Germany for nearly half a century.

Q.—Is the national German suffrage unequal like the Prussian?

A.—The national (Imperial) elections to the Reichstag are by absolutely universal manhood suffrage with the secret ballot system. Every citizen is entitled to his ballot if of legal age, and there is no qualification of property, etc. There are no classes of voters that can outvote other classes under the Constitution. There has, however, been no chance of apportionment in years and this, in effect, leaves districts "gerrymandered."

As a result of this, the members of the Reichstag do not in many cases accurately represent the people in a given community. The result being all to the benefit of the reactionary and governing classes, nothing has been done about it, though the promise is dangled before the socialists when they become too noisy.

Of course, too, the fact remains that no matter what changes might be made in the personnel of the Reichstag, the working plan of the German government is so devised that the real power would be out of its hands.

Q.—What is apportionment?

A.—It is the system by which a representative to the legislative assembly is granted to a specified numerical group of the population. Thus, under our Constitution, Congress can, on the basis of a

national census to be made every ten years, declare from time to time how many Congressmen shall be apportioned to each State and these States, again, are divided into Congress Districts. At present, each Congressman represents about 200,000 people. Each Reichstag representative represents about 132,000.

Q.—What is the defect in Reichstag representation?

A.—It lies in the fact that no new apportionment of districts has been made in many years. The result is that districts now enormously populated are represented in the Reichstag on a basis of past sparse population. Districts that have become industrial lack the type of representation that they would send under modern apportionment. This reacts especially on the new big cities; and the political party suffering most from it is the Socialist in all its groups.

Q.—Which is the largest Lower House?

A.—The British House of Commons with 670 members, against the French Chamber of Deputies with 602, our House of Representatives with 435 Congressmen and the Reichstag with 397 members.

Q.—How do German Parliamentary politics differ from ours?

A.—The striking difference is in the big number of parties or "groups" into which the German Reichstag representation is split, whereas in our Congress and in the British House of Commons there are, as a rule, only two chief parties, and such minor parties as are represented rarely have enough magnitude for any great degree of power. The German Reichstag, in contrast, had in 1912: 110 Social Democrats, 90 Liberals and Radicals, 70 Conservatives, 93 Centrists (party of the Center) and a few unclassified. On specific issues these various groups often split up into still more groups and if any combine on an issue, they do so only temporarily.

Q.—What party is the Junker party?

A.—The Conservative. It is the party of the landed interests, the "agrarians," officials and so forth. Because of its interest in agriculture, it gets the support of many peasants, especially the prosperous ones. It is the party that fights for protective tariffs on agricultural products including meats. It stands also for colonial expansion and strong armies and navies. Being led largely by the Junker class it opposes political reform.

Q.—What party do the Pan-Germans represent?

A.—They are a powerful part of the Conservative party. They are powerful, less by numbers than by solidarity, wealth, aggressiveness and the cohesive and commanding influence of office-holding members. The whole Conservative Party is numerically small compared with others, but its power is undoubted.

Q.—Is there a party of the middle classes?

A.—Yes. The National-Liberals represent the German middle class largely. They oppose the Conservatives on the tariff, favoring a "revision downward" on agricultural products, but they do not want free trade on manufactures.

Q.—Why is there a Clerical party in German politics?

A.—The Clerical party, better known in our day as the party of the Center because it occupies a middle ground of its own between the Conservative and the Liberal and Radical groups, is a survival of the "Kulturkampf." This was a struggle between the German Government under Bismarck's leadership and the Papal doctrine of supreme authority. It had become a political issue particularly through the dogmas adopted in 1869 by the Vatican Council, a great ecclesiastical assemblage convened in Rome. Beginning in 1871, the Kulturkampf lasted for years. In 1873-1875 there were enacted a series of laws known as "May Laws," making civil marriage compulsory, obliging all candidates for priesthood to attend government schools and universities and to pass government examinations. The Pope declared the laws null and void, and the fight became intensely bitter. It did not cease till 1878 when a new Pope, Leo XIII, with more moderate views, made peace with Bismarck. Between that date and 1886 most of the "May Laws" were repealed. The Clerical party became much reduced in numbers and activity, but remained as an important factional power in politics. Its tactical strength today lies in the fact that its support may give a majority to the side it joins.

Q.—How many Socialists are in Germany?

A.—The general German elections of 1912 showed 4,250,000 Socialists in a total number of about 11 million voters. They had 2¼ million adherents more than the next most powerful party, the Center party. The parties that followed in numerical importance were: Liberals, Radicals and Conservatives. Each of these had more than a million adherents. Thus, while the Socialist element among the German voters is far from a possible majority of the popular suffrage, it is easily the most powerful in the empire, so far as massed solidarity is concerned.

Q.—What led autocratic German Government to socialize the State?

A.—An early realization of the problems that were being crystallized by the modern development of industry. The fact that Germany was industrializing herself almost literally over night naturally made many of these problems much more clear to German eyes than they would be in countries that had developed into industrialism gradually. Bismarck was foremost in perceiving and facing the new social questions and conditions that from 1880 on were tending everywhere in the world to create two huge antagonistic classes—the working class and the capital-owning, employing class. He was determined that the German State should avoid the error of producing a working class that regarded the State as an enemy.

Q.—What were the chief laws that socialized the German State?

A.—They were a series of laws passed from 1883 to 1911. The first was the Illness Insurance Law of 1883, making insurance compulsory on all laborers with wages less than $500 a year, the insurance fund being made up by contributions from employers and employees. In 1884 followed the Accident Insurance Law, the funds for which are drawn entirely from employers on the principle that accidents are part of the risk that is taken in earning profits. An Old Age and Invalidity Law was passed in 1889. It went beyond all preceding policies, and formed a pension fund made of contributions from the State as well as employers and workingmen, for workers totally incapacitated at any time and for those who passed 70 years (reduced to 65 years in 1915). The pensions range from $30 to $60 annually.

Q.—What were the laws of 1911?

A.—They were a codification or unification in about 2,000 articles of the whole series of social insurance and protection laws, and it was largely the passage of this very voluminous and remarkable legislation that focussed the attention of the world on the vast issues raised by the policy of the socialized State.

Q.—Did the Government at the same time fight Socialism?

A.—Yes. Even while Bismarck declared that it was the duty of a State to protect its weaker members from being "run over and trampled under foot on the high-road of life," he remained a champion of a series of so-called "exceptional laws" aimed at the growing power of the Social Democratic doctrine. The formation of a Social Democratic party followed the Franco-Prussian War almost immediately, and from the first it opposed Bismarck bitterly and openly worked for the establishment of a Democratic republic. The first repressive laws were enacted in 1878 after two attempts had been made to assassinate Emperor William (the first German Emperor and grandfather of the present Emperor). He was aged and undoubtedly beloved, and the Government had no difficulty in passing laws that for a time practically outlawed Social Democracy.

Q.—Did the repressive laws hinder the growth of Socialism?

A.—No. They increased it. Even the clear-sighted Bismarck did not realize, and never would admit, that force against deep-seated political ideas only strengthens them. While he had a great intellectual disdain for force used by short-sighted government to extinguish problems that it was incompetent to solve properly, he still believed that force was an efficient and normal part of government. Therefore during the years of his leadership the German State continually socialized itself and continually fought Socialism. It must not be forgotten, however, that his political genius told him that socialization by government was in itself likely to blunt Socialism's sharpest weapon. "Give the workingman the right to employment as long as he has health, assure him care when he is ill and support when he is old," he said in the Reichstag, "then these gentlemen, the Socialists, will utter their bird-calls in vain." Another time he told the middle-class Liberals, who were against the social laws,

that they could not frighten him with the word "socialism." He said: "If you believe that you can call up spectres with this word, you assume an attitude that I abandoned long ago."

Q.—What was the growth of Socialism during the repressive laws?

A.—A table presented by Professor Schapiro in the most recent account of European political development ("Modern and Contemporary European History") shows that the gain was not only steady but extraordinary. In 1871 the Socialist vote in the Reichstag elections was 124,500, and they won only 2 seats. In 1874 it had more than doubled (352,000) and they returned 10 Reichstag members. 'In only one election, that of 1881, was there a marked falling off of the Socialist vote." In the next Reichstag election, that of 1884, they passed the half-million mark (550,000) and won 24 seats. In 1890, the year of Bismarck's retirement, the "exceptional laws" passed out of existence by not being renewed. In that year's Reichstag elections the Socialist vote reached 1,427,000 and returned 35 representatives. In 1898 it passed 2 million, in 1903 it exceeded 3 million, and in 1912 a vote of 4,250,000 sent 110 Socialist representatives to the Reichstag.

Q.—What are the leading German Socialist political principles?

A.—Leaving aside the confused issues that have been raised by the war, the principles of the German Socialist Democratic party were laid down as follows in the famous Erfurt Congress held by them in 1891 after the repeal of the anti-Socialist laws: maximum demands, abolition of private capital and establishment of a co-operative commonwealth; minimum demands (for immediate prosecution) substitution of a popular militia for the standing army, heavy inheritance and income taxes, universal 8-hour work-day, woman suffrage, equal, direct and secret suffrage for all legislative bodies, proportional representation, full freedom of speech and assembly, civil equality for men and women, free secular education and complete separation of Church and State.

Q.—Have the German Socialists always opposed militarism?

A.—As recently before the war as 1912, there was a big Socialist anti-military explosion in the Reichstag. It was on October 20, 1912, and on that same day demonstrations were made in Dusseldorf, Dortmund, Bremen, Kiel, Leipzig, Berlin, Hamburg, Dresden, Spandau, Cassel, Frankfurt and Stuttgart. Similar ones occurred on November 17, 1912, in Bremen and Hanover.

In October and November, 1912, protests against the advances of Austrian diplomacy in the Balkan situation were made in the Bavarian Parliament, and in the Austrian Parliament. Protest meetings were held during these months at Prague and other Hungarian towns, Vienna, and throughout Austria.

The German Socialists protested in Parliament (Reichstag) against the Zabern Affair on November 28 and December 3 and 4, 1913, and again on January 23 and 24, 1914.

Q.—Did the Socialists ever vote for Army and Navy appropriations?

A.—They did so once—the year before the war. Before 1913 the German and Austrian Socialists, in their Parliaments, had voted at all times against the Army and Navy budgets, and against all increase in taxes for military purposes. In September, 1913, however, when rival German and French army bills made a tense situation, the German Socialists voted in favor though the French Socialists voted against the French three-year army bill under Jaurez, who was assassinated, largely because of this opposition, soon after war began.

Q.—What did the Socialists do when war came?

A.—At the gathering of the menace, the German Socialist party issued a "Proclamation," in which occurs the following: "Not one drop of a German soldier's blood shall be sacrificed to the lust of power of the Austrian rulers and to the imperialistic profit-interests."

Mass-meetings were held in Berlin on July 28, 1914—28 meetings in all, with an attendance estimated at 70,000. Similar meetings were held in nearly all the other large cities, often dispersed by police and soldiers. On July 29, 1914, the *Vorwaerts*, the Socialist daily in Berlin, placed the blame on Austria.

In July, 1914, Austrian Socialists protested in Parliament and in mass-meetings against the policy pursued by the Austro-Hungarian Government towards Serbia.

When war was declared, however, the

Austrian and Hungarian Socialists supported their Government, on the ground that their countries were being attacked. The Socialists of England and France thereupon supported their government.

Q.—Did no German Socialist vote against war?

A.—Only one Socialist, Karl Liebknecht, opposed the government and he was expelled from the party for this reason. Later in the war, when Germany's policies in Belgium and Russia plainly went beyond any possible limits of defensive action, a block of about 20 Socialists declared that the government had undertaken to pursue a war for aggressive ends. These Socialists broke away from their fellows and formed a new group which made its basic demand that the government bring about an immediate cessation of the war.

Q.—Did the German Socialists ever assume power during the war?

A.—Early in 1917, a formula pronouncing against annexation of territory and proposing a general renunciation of indemnities was agitated by the majority faction of German Socialists. The Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies in Petrograd also made "no annexations, no indemnities" a foremost principle of their attitude toward the war. In July, 1917, a decided political crisis was created as result of a determined factional fight against the Imperial Chancellor, von Bethmann-Hollweg. He was overthrown and on July 14, 1917, was succeeded by Dr. Georg Michaelis. Immediately there occurred a most unexpected coalition between two parties not usually associated or agreed in legislative matters—the Socialists and the Center. The latter is the Roman Catholic party, and used to be known as the Clerical party. While accustomed as a habitual part of its political tactics to attain a "balance of power" by voting with or against the other parties, it had not often affiliated with the Socialists. The sudden move made the Centrists and the Socialists temporarily the masters of the Reichstag.

Q.—Did the Socialists exercise their control importantly?

A.—At the time the Socialists and the Centrists achieved a Parliamentary success that might have altered the aspect of the entire war-situation, had they been able to make it permanent. On July 19, 1917, they succeeded in passing a resolution declaring that "The Reichstag labors for peace and a mutual understanding and lasting reconciliation among the nations. Forced acquisitions of territory and political, economic and financial violations are incompatible with such a peace."

Q.—Did the Reichstag adhere to this principle?

A.—By the peace treaty between Germany and the Bolshevik Government of Russia, signed March, 1918, the Russians gave up Finland, Esthonia, Livonia, Courland, Poland and Lithouania in the west, the Ukraine in the south, Batum, Erivan and Kars in the Caucasus. While none of these territories was declared annexed to the Central Powers, and, indeed, while they were referred to as independent, the general tenor of the treaty and many of its provisions, with the expanding military occupation by German troops gave it an aspect that convinced the world that a huge scheme of aggrandizement was intended. Notwithstanding, the treaty was ratified in the Reichstag by an almost unanimous vote, the Social Democrats voting for it like all the others.

Q.—Does the Imperial Bundesrath resemble the Senate or the Lords?

A.—No. This Upper House of the German Imperial Parliament has specifically a character wholly its own. Its members are appointed for each session by the rulers of the various German States. The consent of the Bundesrath is necessary for treaties, for the dissolution of the Reichstag and for amendments to, or changes in, the Constitution. As 14 of the 61 votes in the Bundesrath are sufficient to defeat a Constitutional amendment, this Upper House possesses a compelling power over changes in the fundamental laws of the Empire.

Q.—How is the Bundesrath apportioned?

A.—Prussia appoints the largest number of members—17. Bavaria appoints the next larger number—6. Saxony and Württemberg each appoint 4. Baden, Hesse and Alsace-Lorraine each appoint 3. Mecklenburg Schwerin and Braunschweig (Brunswick) appoint 2 each. The other States appoint 1 each. Thus, no one State has a majority; but Prussia,

partly by having 17 votes to begin with, and partly by controlling many other votes, can always control the 61 members of the Bundesrath.

Q.—How many States are in the German Empire?

A.—There are 25 States and one Reichsland or territorial province (Alsace-Lorraine). Of the States, 4 are Kingdoms—Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg. There are 6 Grand Duchies, the largest of which is Baden. The other States are: 5 Duchies, 7 Principalities and 3 Republics.

Q.—Are there really republics in Germany?

A.—Yes. There are three little, but powerful, republics—the three free towns or cities of Lübeck, Bremen and Hamburg, each of which proudly calls itself Freie or Hansestadt (Free or Hanseatic City). The freedom of these independent cities really dates back centuries to the Hanseatic League, but they are under modern constitutions, adopted in 1848 and 1849, and often revised to make them highly up-to-date.

Q.—Do these German republics rule themselves?

A.—They are as independent in their own right as are the big Kingdoms of Germany. They are ruled by Senates elected for life and by big bodies of burgesses, elected by all the citizens for terms of years ranging from four to six. Lübeck has 120 burgesses, Hamburg has 160, and Bremen has 140. The head of the Republic is Burgermeister (Mayor), who is elected by the citizens. Bremen has two burgermeisters elected at the same time, and governing together for four years. Hamburg has two, a first and a second. Lübeck contents herself with one.

Q.—Are the republics important in the empire?

A.—Bremen and Hamburg are the two shipping ports of the empire. Through them flows the commerce of the nation, and the 1½ millions of citizens are among the richest and most influential in the country, wielding an enormous political and financial power. The great German steamship lines are owned directly by Bremen and Hamburg men. Both ports count their shipping by the million tons, and Hamburg has often been described as the most advanced and elaborate port in the world.

Q.—Have all the German States Parliaments of their own?

A.—All have separate representative assemblies, except the two grand duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz. Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, Baden and Hesse have the two-chamber system. The smaller States have one House only. The smallest principality, that of Schaumberg-Lippe, has only 15 members. Brunswick, the largest of the smaller States, has a chamber of 48 members.

Q.—Have the Germans a system of second ballots?

A.—Yes. They have a system for the Reichstag elections, under which, if absolute majority is not obtained by one candidate over all the others who are contesting the election, a second ballot is taken between the two candidates who have received the greatest number of votes.

Q.—What is the meaning of the Kaiser's title "War Lord"?

A.—In German, the title is "Kriegs-Herr," and "War Lord" is merely a literally correct translation, the actual meaning being "War Commander." The title signifies officially that whoever is Emperor of Germany becomes by virtue of this office Supreme Commander of the Army and Navy in war.

The Kaiser has not the absolute command over the forces of the entire German Army in peace. Article 66 of the German Constitution provides that the German princes, especially the kings of Bavaria, Württemberg and Saxony, are the chiefs of the troops belonging to their territory (six army corps of twenty-four). The absolute disposition of the German Army passes legally to the Kaiser only in the moment when the consent of the States for declaration of war has been obtained through the Bundesrath.

Q.—Can the Kaiser make war?

A.—He cannot declare an offensive war, but a clause in the constitution provides that he can declare war if defensive. If war is not defensive, he must have the consent of the Bundesrath, or Federal Council. This differs from American Constitutional law in that our President has not power to declare either of-

fensive or defensive state of war, because the Constitution vests the war-making power in Congress, and this power is in the whole Congress, not merely in the Senate. This is as in France, where both Chambers must assent to war. In Great Britain the King can enter war without the consent of the House of Commons, but in actual practice this power has fallen into complete abeyance, since the ruling force is a Ministry which is in turn dependent on party majority in the Commons.

Q.—If the Reichstag refuses to pass the Kaiser's measures, what can he do?

A.—He can dissolve it, and thus cause another election. If the new body again refuse to approve of his legislation, he can again dissolve Parliament, and a second election would be held. Such a case has never arisen to date (August, 1918), but it is not impossible.

Q.—Can the Kaiser dissolve the Reichstag at any time?

A.—Yes. He has the right either to "prorogue" it (that means to close its session temporarily) or to dissolve it entirely. All that he needs is a majority vote of the Bundesrath. He cannot, however, prorogue the Reichstag indefinitely, and he cannot go on without a Reichstag. If he prorogues the Reichstag, it can be for only a period of 30 days, unless the Reichstag itself consents to a longer period. If he dissolves a Reichstag, new elections must be held within sixty days, and a new session must be held within ninety days.

Q.—Can the Legislative Assemblies of other nations be dissolved?

A.—Of the larger nations in the war, the United States Congress is the only legislative assembly that cannot on occasion be dissolved. The American President can neither prorogue nor dissolve it, Congress being a co-equal body of government. The President of France can dissolve the Chamber of Deputies with consent of the Senate. He can adjourn both Chambers, but not for more than a month, and not more than twice in the same session. The King of Italy can dissolve the Lower House at any time, being bound only to order new elections and convoke a new session within four months. The Emperor of Japan can prorogue or dissolve the House of Representatives. Every session of the British Parliament must end with a prorogation from the Crown, and the King can dissolve a Parliament, but no King in modern times has done so on his own authority.

Q.—What is the British Parliamentary practice?

A.—What the King does about Parliament is purely a matter of form. In actual fact, Parliament is prorogued when the majority party decides to do so, and it is dissolved when the majority party's Cabinet has been outvoted in Parliament on some national measure. An adverse vote (a vote of lack of confidence, as it is called) results by custom in a general election to bring in a new Parliament. As a matter of strict law, a Cabinet could hold out; but it could get no measures passed, and it would antagonize the voters by flouting British custom, which is stronger than written law. The British Constitution really is largely a matter of National custom; and the King acts accordingly, proroguing or dissolving Parliament by advice of the Cabinet.

Q.—How much power has the Crown Prince of Germany?

A.—Technically he has none (except of course such military power as is given to him by virtue of commanding an army). Politically he occupies about the same officially unimportant position as does the Heir-Apparent to the British throne (Prince of Wales).

His importance in the national and international politics of the day comes from two main causes: (1) he might at any moment become Emperor through the death of Wilhelm; (2) he can gather around him, or be used as a rallying point by, factions that want the Empire to hold by the sword what it has gained by the sword. This would make a sharp rift between his father, the Emperor, and himself, should the Emperor lean to the liberal and moderate factions in Germany and declare for concessions and more or less democracy. Of course it might prove a double-edged weapon. The Crown Prince's faction might win; but should it lose, or should it involve the Empire in ruin, it might end the reign of the Hohenzollern dynasty.

Q.—What would happen should the Kaiser be killed?

A.—The present Crown Prince would

succeed to the Imperial office by virtue of the Constitution. There is hardly a doubt that the military party would proclaim him Emperor instantly, in order to prevent any possible move by the Socialists and others to change the existing provisions of the national law.

Q.—Did the present emperor, while Crown Prince try to over-ride his father?

A.—Yes. It did not reach the extent of a quarrel or even a serious disturbance of family relations; but the present Kaiser's father was altogether too placid an Emperor to suit his very strenuous son. Friedrich III (lovingly called "Unser Fritz" by the Germans) was a singularly tolerant, kindly, easy-going man, very simple and old-fashioned. His Germany was the old, deliberate Germany. The son, Wilhelm, was intensely restless—ambitious, bent on showy activities, determined when his time came to rule personally and imperially, a terror to responsible statesmen who never knew where he would break out next. It was as inevitable that he should become desperately impatient with the mild Frederick as it was that he should dismiss stiff old Bismarck as soon as he felt himself secure enough.

Q.—What nations in the war elect their ruling heads?

A.—Only the United States. The British Prime Minister is appointed by the King (though, in actual practice, the ruling majority in Parliament makes up its mind whom it wants, and the King has always appointed that particular person). The President of France is elected by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. He has very little power, and the real ruler, the Premier, though appointed by the President, really is appointed only according to the wishes of the party in power at a given moment. In Italy the Ministry is appointed by the King, usually in accord with the ruling majority.

Q.—Is there a State religion in Germany?

A.—The Imperial Constitution provides for entire liberty of conscience, and for complete equality among all religious confessions. In the different States there are various relations between Church and State. Many States make grants to various religions. Baden, for instance, makes annual grants to the Roman Catholic and Protestant Churches and to the Jews. Bavaria has Catholic and Protestant dignitaries in its Upper House, etc. The majority of the religious population of Germany, as a whole, is Protestant, and the majority of the Protestants are Lutheran. These Protestants form about 62 per cent of the church census. Catholics form about 37 per cent. Roman Catholics are in the majority in three of the States—Bavaria, Baden and Alsace-Lorraine.

Q.—What nation has been foremost in science?

A.—The rival claims of warring nations have so filled the world, and there has arisen so much dispute over historical facts which no one dreamed of disputing before 1914, that any categorical reply may seem merely contentious or controversial. Here, however, are a few facts that may be considered as quite established. Lavoisier, a Frenchman, gave the world a large part of its modern foundation of chemistry. An Englishman, John Dalton, gave us the atomic theory. Johann Jakob Berzelius, a Swede, and Amadeo Avagadro, an Italian, added greatly to it. Friedrich Wöhler, a German, gave us the foundation for synthetic organic chemistry. Justus von Liebig, a German, gave the world chemical discoveries of vast importance for food and his experiments with artificial fertilizers laid a basis for scientific agriculture. In physics an American, Benjamin Thompson, discovered the nature of heat. An Englishman, Sir Humphrey Davy, gave the world knowledge of immense practical value. The theory of conservation of energy, equally valuable to the world, came from James Prescott Joule, an Englishman, and Julius Robert Mayer, a German. Experiments on the nature of sound by the German, Herman von Helmholtz, laid the foundation for our science of acoustics. In medicine, a Russian, Elias Metschnikoff, discovered that in some diseases the white blood cells defend the body. Louis Pasteur, a Frenchman, was pioneer in serum-therapy, discovering preventative hydrophobia and anthrax. Robert Koch, a German, found the germ of tuberculosis. Emil von Behring, a German, discovered anti-toxin serum for diphtheria. An American, Dr. John C. Warren, first used anæsthesia. An Englishman, Lord Lister, developed antisepsis. A German, Wilhelm Röntgen, discovered the X-ray.

Q.—What nation led in modern exploration?

A.—In the nineteenth century, a Swede, Sven Hedin, explored Central Asia. An Englishman, Colonel Younghusband, penetrated Thibet and entered Lhassa, till then sealed to the world. A German, Alexander von Humboldt, explored the Amazon and Orinoco valleys and founded modern physical geography. An American, Robert Peary, reached the North Pole. A Norwegian, Roald Amundsen, reached the South Pole. An English expedition under Captain R. F. Scott, reached it a month later but perished on the return journey. A Scotchman, David Livingstone, explored Africa. Henry M. Stanley, an Englishman, crossed it from east to west.

Q.—What does German law mean by "Fortress Confinement"?

A.—It is imprisonment that does not carry with it the stigma or onus of imprisonment in jails or penitentiaries. In fact, in a sense it actually gives the imprisoned person a certificate of personal honor, and men who have suffered this form of punishment need feel no sense of shame. They are not convicts, either in the legal or the moral sense. Officers of the German Army are punished for military offenses in this way. Men accused of moral crime are not sent to fortresses and it is used mainly for political offenses in the case of civilians.

Q.—Does fortress imprisonment differ in actual details from other imprisonment?

A.—A "fortress," in the legal sense, may be a very wide area indeed. It is not necessarily limited to the actual limits of a fortification. There are degrees of fortress imprisonment. A man may be sentenced to "close confinement" in a fortress, in which case he may not be permitted to go beyond the exact limits of a walled fort. In very severe sentences he may even be confined largely to a casemate, but this is unusual. Most cases permit the arrested man to move practically at will throughout the uttermost limits of a fortified area. In some cases, this may give him practical freedom of a whole town.

Q.—What is the "Hymn of Hate"?

A.—A German poem of hatred against England, written by Ernest Lissauer, in 1915. It has been set to music and appears in some of the German school books.

Q.—Why are the Germans called "Boches"?

A.—"Boche" appears to be an abbreviation of "Alboche," an Alsatian word for "Allemand" (meaning German).

In Alsace-Lorraine, it has been for some time used as a synonym for drunkard, liar, barbarian, and adjectively for "unmentionably cruel." The French adopted the word in the beginning of the war as typifying the Prussians. Many other explanations are given from time to time of what the slang-word really means, and how it came to be applied.

It was probably used also in the Franco-Prussian War in 1870, for Zola, in his novel *La Débâcle*, a story dealing with the war, puts the term in the mouths of French soldiers to designate the Germans. The term *ce boche* was used, before the Franco-Prussian War at least, as equivalent to "that chump," and *tête de boche* is given by French dictionaries of slang as equivalent to "wooden-pate" or "blockhead." It is, perhaps, for this reason that some French scholars derive the present use of *boche* from *caboche*, a French word meaning head.

Q.—Did the Germans officially encourage polygamy?

A.—It has been repeatedly stated by correspondents and non-combatant workers abroad, as a matter of common knowledge that Belgian and French women were forced to bear children by German soldiers—with the intent of augmenting the future man-power of Deutschland.

More than one writer has asserted that the same idea had been carried out with women of the fatherland; and this charge had a certain amount of confirmation in the free circulation of an extraordinary pamphlet by Carl Hermann Torges. This was entitled: "The Secondary Marriage as Only Means for the Rapid Creation of a New and Powerful Army and the Purification of Morality"; and it advocated this handling of human beings like animal breeding stock.

Q.—Is it true that the German Government has been willing to spend large sums of money in the United States to suppress evidence that the Kaiser planned the war?

A.—It has been stated with authority

that an American journalist, during a yachting trip with the German Emperor ten years ago, got an interview in which the monarch expressed ideas that seemed to imply a plan of something like world-domination. The journalist prepared a magazine article for a New York magazine. The German Ambassador, von Bernstorff, heard about it after the magazine was printed and before it was published. The German Government bought all the sheets of the magazine, packed them in tin-lined cases, and sent a German warship for them. The article has never been published, but one copy of the magazine has found its way into the hands of Secretary of State Lansing, and has been added to the evidence in the case which will probably be published at the conclusion of the war.

Q.—Did the Germans have many troops in Africa?

A.—There were only 2,000 Germans in East Africa, but they had drilled about 18,000 natives, and they used them against the South African forces. General Smuts, the Boer commander of the British African forces relied chiefly on Boer, British colonial forces and Indian troops in his campaign against the German African colonies with some natives. The Belgian Army, which advanced from the Congo, was almost entirely composed of natives, and the Portuguese forces which entered German East Africa from the south were native for the most part.

Q.—Can Germany get more soldiers out of its population than any other nation?

A.—Many figures have been given in the first three years of war to prove that this or that nation can or cannot extract from its population as much human war material as some other nation can. Most of these mathematical exercises were valuable only as intellectual pastimes. It seems true to say that Germany can, without doubt, extract from her growing young male population at least as many men as any other nation can draw. And it may be assumed, as a further element of calculation, that Germany's very up-to-date hygienic care for her population had given the growing males a maximum chance for physical efficiency. The hard conditions of the war-years, however, with the diminution of the food-rations, have presumably served to lower the physique of the youngsters who are eligible for army service in 1918.

GERMANY (FOOD)

Q.—What did a German get to eat in 1918?

A.—The German bill of fare was about as follows:

Meat: In Berlin, 250 grams—about one-half a pound—per person per week; in Munich, 200 grams; in Saxony, 150 grams.

Bread: 250 grams per day per person; all persons performing manual labor, 500 grams.

Potatoes: In Berlin, five to seven pounds per person per week; in Bavaria, usually ten pounds per person per week.

Butter and Fats: In Berlin, from 50 to 75 grams per person per week; in Leipzig, from 30 to 90 grams; in Bavaria, between 60 and 90 grams.

Milk: Babies and patients in hospitals now receive from one-fourth to one-half quart per day each. A year ago every child and every sick person received one liter (½ quart) per day.

Sugar: 800 grams per month per person.

Vegetables: In season.

Fish: Whenever obtainable.

Jam or marmalade: About one-fourth of a pound per month.

No coffee, tea or cocoa, but small quantities of coffee and tea substitutes. No pure beer, but only beer substitutes.

Q.—What were the military rations?

A.—The soldier's food ration was as follows:

Breakfast: Coffee or a substitute, with dry bread.

Lunch: Soup with occasional small pieces of meat; vegetables and bread.

Supper: Bread and marmalade.

One pound of war bread daily was allowed.

Q.—What is the "iron ration"?

A.—The "iron ration" is the emergency ration which the German soldier carries in his pack. It is called "iron ration" because iron-like rules surround it. The soldier must carry it always, and no soldier must ever, under any circumstances, touch it except in the last extremity. When the starvation-blockade began to squeeze the people hard, and they were reduced to their smallest portions of the poorest food-materials, it became a grim jest among civilians to refer to their "iron rations."

Q.—Was the German bread ticket intended to effect an equal distribution?

A.—No. It was issued, at first, that the poor might have cheap bread and that those who were willing to buy more food than the bread ticket prescribed should have to pay heavily for the indulgence.

Q.—Is Germany's bread very poor?

A.—The official regulations provided for a bread that may or may not be highly palatable, but that consists of perfectly healthful and nourishing mixtures. "War breads" were a prominent part of Germany's early defense against starvation when the oceanic blockade began. As we have found, these various war breads were awful only in name, and actually have turned out to be decidedly good, on the whole, so that it may be that the United States, as a mere matter of health, pleasant variety, and perfectly profitable economy will retain most of these various bran, oatmeal, rye, corn and wheat mixtures in its normal dietary.

However, during the "peak" of the cereal famine pinch in Germany, the war breads were decidedly not nice or good, and in very many places throughout the empire they were quite terribly bad. Some reports say that they were made of less than 40 per cent wheat, the other 60 per cent being sawdust, powdered straw, and other such organic but vile admixtures. That kind of bread means that a part, at least, of the German population was reduced almost to the situation of German peasants in the Thirty Years' War, when they often ate straw.

Q.—Is it true that the Germans made many food substitutes?

A.—Yes. The German newspapers have carried masses of advertising of substitutes for all the various kind of food that are short. According to the reports generally circulated through the outer world, there were as many as 7,000 substitutes in 1917, but expert analysis of the available lists shows that this huge number is arrived at by lumping the following four chief classes of substitutes: (1) normal substitutes like oleomargarines, syrups, etc., such as are used in all countries; (2) natural, though unusual, substitutes, such as potato meal for flour, vegetable and

which mutton was to be exported to Turkey, Greece, and even Egypt. Still, what would be over-abundance for the Bulgars would not go very far for Germany.

Bulgaria had 8½ million sheep in 1910, the date of the last animal census. Her cattle amounted to 1,600,000. Altogether she had about 12 million head of stock to 5 million population. Thus she had a surplus.

Q.—Are there any figures on Germany's live stock?

A.—According to the animal census in April, 1916, the number of cattle in Germany had been reduced to 19,900,000, and there were only 13,300,000 pigs left. A further census appears to have been taken in September, 1916, and shows a remarkable increase, especially in the number of pigs. The figures are as follows:

Horned Cattle.	Apr. 15, 1916.	Sept. 1, 1916.	Inc. per cent.
Calves under 3 months	1,974,434	1,982,891	0.4
Young cattle, 3 months-2 yrs.	6,092,718	6,307,504	4.6
Bulls and oxen over 2 years..	1,365,877	1,451,122	6.2
Cows and heifers over 2 yrs.	10,552,154	10,597,433	0.4
Total	19,921,183	20,338,950	2.1
Pigs.			
Under 6 months	9,055,382	11,204,976	23.7
6-12 months....	2,857,041	4,230,890	48.1
Over 12 months	1,424,779	1,825,242	28.1
Total	13,337,202	17,261,108	29.4

Q.—What live stock had Germany before war?

A.—According to the official German figures there were in September, 1912, 20,182,000 cattle; in September, 1913, 20,994,000. On those dates the numbers of pigs were 21,821,000 and 25,659,000 respectively.

Q.—Did Germany have more live stock than other countries?

A.—Germany had in 1916 about 50½ million head of food-animals (cattle, sheep, swine, etc.) for a population of about 68 million.

The United States had in 1917 about 176 million head of live stock for a population of about 102 million.

Of course, it must be remembered that the United States is a meat-exporting country, while Germany is not.

Comparing Germany's live stock per head of population with that of non-exporting countries, we find: France, about 29 million head of meat animals to 40 million population; United Kingdom (England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales), about 45 million head to 45 million population.

Q.—How does German milk production per cow compare?

A.—In the United States the average yield among 11 million cows is 420 gallons of milk per cow a year. In Denmark (1,500,000 cows), the average yield per cow per year was 550 gallons before the war when feeding conditions were normal. In Germany before the war the average yield was 750 gallons per cow per year.

Q.—What supplies has Austria-Hungary?

A.—That empire, with a population just about the same as that of the United Kingdom, had, when the war broke out, 17,000,000 cattle, 12,000,000 sheep, 13,000,000 pigs, 3,500,000 horses, 2,000,000 goats.

THE SELECTIVE DRAFT

Q.—When was the selective draft law passed?

A.—The original "Select Service Law" is an Act of Congress, which came into full force May 18, 1917. The law is entitled: "An Act to authorize the President to increase temporarily the Military Establishment of the United States." Its purpose was the raising of troops to carry on the war against Germany. It was drawn to create a "National Army," and it called on all men from 21 to 30 inclusive.

Q.—When was the age limit extended?

A.—On August 31, 1918, when the President signed the new "man-power bill" calling on all men between 18 and 45 to register on September 12, 1918. The law included all men who had attained their 18th birthday and who had not reached their 46th birthday on the day set for registration.

Q.—What was the draft just previous to the second law?

A.—It was the draft of men who had reached 21. This was done under the original law which provided that as men became 21 they became liable to draft.

Q.—When was the first drawing for the selective draft?

A.—The official drawing of numbers to determine the men of the country to constitute the first draft for the National Army was July 20, 1917, in the Office Building of the United States Senate, in the presence of the Secretary of War, many army officers of high rank, Senators and Representatives and many citizens.

Numbered slips incased in capsules were drawn by two blindfolded men and these were announced and unofficially transmitted over the country by the press. The official list was announced later by the Secretary of War.

The first number drawn was 258. After that the numbers were drawn at the rate of 600 an hour. It required 22 hours to complete the work.

Q.—What was meant by the "master list"?

A.—The drawing of numbers that was made in Washington under the direction of the Secretary of War took in numbers from 1 to 10,500 both inclusive.

A schedule or master list was prepared by the Provost Marshal General containing all of these numbers placed in the exact order in which they were drawn.

The master list thus controlled the exact order in which the persons whose registration cards are in the possession of the respective Local Boards, or may hereafter be received by said Local Boards, are liable to be called by the Local Board for Military Service.

Q.—Is provision made to notify families of boys in training camps if they are ill?

A.—The American Red Cross has established in the camps and cantonments in the United States the service (already furnished in France) to keep families in America in personal touch with their boys, ill or wounded in the field. This action is in response to a request made by the Secretary of War, who wrote that "American Red Cross representatives at the camps here, as in France, would have access to daily lists of admissions and evacuations from the hospitals, and, so far as it is in accord with necessary medical rules, would be allowed to talk with sick men. They would be expected to keep families constantly informed as to the condition and progress of men in the hospitals, to write letters for men unable to write themselves, and in general to fulfill that clause of the Red Cross charter which designates the society as "a medium of communication between troops in the field and their families at home."

Q.—Can a man be drafted who has had previous service?

A.—Yes, he is a civilian and liable to draft.

Q.—What is the ratio of death in the U. S. Army?

A.—Figures compiled at the office of Surg. Gen. William C. Gorgas, U. S. A., and made public on Dec. 29, 1917, show that with more than 900,000 soldiers in training in this country from Sept. 21 to Dec. 14, there were only 1,391 deaths from all causes, an average rate of less than two per 1,000. Among the 202,009 Regulars there were 144 deaths. There were 494 deaths in the 387,233 National Army and 753 deaths in the 327,480 National Guardsmen.

Secretary Baker said:

"The death rate in our forces in the United States, from mid-September to the end of December averaged 7.5 per thousand, and is slightly less than would have been the death rate of men of the same age at home. In 1898 the death rate per thousand was 20.14, or nearly three times as great. Our death rate in the Army during the year 1916, just before the war, was five per thousand. Leaving out the deaths due to measles and its complications, our rate among all troops in the United States since Sept. 1 has been about two per thousand."

Q.—Where are the draft army cantonments?

Place.	Name.	Designation.
Alexandria, La.	Camp Beauregard	National Guard
American Lake, Wash.	Camp Lewis	National Army
Annapolis Junction, Md.	Camp Meade	Do.
Anniston, Ala.	Camp McClellan	National Guard
Atlanta, Ga.	Camp Gordon	National Army
Augusta, Ga.	Camp Hancock	National Guard
Ayer, Mass.	Camp Devens	National Army
Battle Creek, Mich.	Camp Custer	Do.
Charlotte, N. C.	Camp Greene	National Guard
Chillicothe, Ohio	Camp Sherman	National Army
Columbia, S. C.	Camp Jackson	Do.
Deming, N. Mex.	Camp Cody	National Guard
Des Moines, Iowa	Camp Dodge	National Army
Fort Riley, Kans.	Camp Funston	Do.
Fort Sam Houston, Tex.	Camp Travis	Do.
Fort Sill, Okla.	Camp Doniphan	National Guard
Fort Worth, Tex.	Camp Bowie	Do.
Greenville, S. C.	Camp Sevier	Do.
Hattiesburg, Miss.	Camp Shelby	Do.
Houston, Tex.	Camp Logan	Do.
Linda Vista, Cal.	Camp Kearney	Do.
Little Rock, Ark.	Camp Pike	National Army
Louisville, Ky.	Camp Zachary Taylor	Do.
Macon, Ga.	Camp Wheeler	National Guard
Montgomery, Ala.	Camp Sheridan	Do.
Palo Alto, Cal.	Camp Fremont	Do.
Petersburg, Va.	Camp Lee	National Army
Rockford, Ill.	Camp Grant	Do.
Spartanburg, S. C.	Camp Wadsworth	National Guard
Waco, Tex.	Camp McArthur	Do.
Wrightstown, N. J.	Camp Dix	National Army
Yaphank, Long Island, N. Y.	Camp Upton	Do.

Q.—What is the size of the average American cantonment?

A.—A camp accommodating 37,000 men is about two miles in length and one and a half miles in breadth. Each camp contains about 1,600 buildings, the construction of which requires 34,000,000 square feet of lumber. For heating and lighting these camps, 400 miles of electric wiring and 60 miles of heating pipes were required.

Q.—Has a decision been given on the constitutionality of the Selective Draft Law?

A.—Yes. The United States Supreme Court on January 7, 1918, passed seven cases arising under the selective draft law and decided adversely to the men drafted.

Q.—What total number of Americans were subject to draft?

A.—There were estimated to be in the United States (in round numbers) 10,000,000 men between the ages of 21 and 30 inclusive. This number represents very nearly 10 per cent of the estimated population of the country—between 103,000,000 and 104,000,000. The figure was reached by estimating the number of males who had attained ages of 21 and 30, inclusive, since the date of the last census, April 15, 1910. This basis of calculation proved wonderfully close. On the same basis it was estimated that the number affected by the second draft law was 12,780,000 in round numbers.

Q.—How many registrants under the first draft were called?

A.—The total number of registrants was 9,586,508. Of these 3,082,949, or 32.16 per cent were called by the various registration boards. Those not called numbered 6,503,550, or 67.84 per cent of the total number of men between the ages of 21 to 30 who registered under the law. A total of 1,057,363 men were certified for service and 687,000 were named in the first call.

Q.—How many of the men called by the first draft failed to appear?

A.—The total number of men called to colors was 9,586,508. Of these 252,294 failed to appear.

Q.—Were many drafted men rejected at the camps?

A.—The percentage of rejections at camp varied between 0.72 per cent and 11.87 per cent, and, as the physical conditions of the men from the different regions cannot account for this, it is attributed to differences in strictness in the examinations by the camp surgeons.

The valuable mass of data now latent in the record has not been studied in its entirety. But of 10,000 men spread over eight camps, the sources of defect showing the largest percentages were eyes, teeth, hernia, ears, heart disease and tuberculosis in the order given.

Q.—What proportion of men went unwillingly?

A.—"The actual state of mind, of course, cannot be known," says General Crowder, "but the filing of an unsuccessful claim for exemption or discharge is, at least, an index of unwillingness, and figures show that of the 1,057,363 certified for service, those who filed no claims for exemption were 639,054, or 60.44 per cent —the 'involuntary' conscripts being 418,309, or 39.56 per cent."

Q.—How many aliens were drafted?

A.—A total number of 1,243,801 were registered. Of these, 772,744 were Allied aliens, 148,274 were neutral aliens, 40,663 were enemy aliens, and 282,120 were allies of enemy aliens. The number called was 457,713, and of this 76,545 were finally accepted for service—only 17 in a hundred.

Q.—Is a man subject to draft if he becomes forty-six before the draft call?

A.—This provision of the act reads, "Persons shall be subject to registration who shall have attained their 18th birthday and who shall not have attained their 46th birthday on or before the day set for the registration, and all persons so registered shall be and remain subject to draft."

Q.—How many unmarried physically fit men become twenty-one years of age each year?

A.—The number of males arriving at the age of 21 each year is estimated to be 960,000. As shown by the percentages of acceptance in the first draft, this estimated proportion of those unmarried and physically fit will be 96 per cent unmarried, and 76.3 per cent fit physically.

Q.—What had the first draft boards suggested about age limit?

A.—The following suggestions had been made by a majority of the boards: that young men who are under age should come within the law when they reach the minimum draft age; that young men of 18 or 19 years should be enrolled and trained so as to be ready for service immediately upon attaining draft age: 19 and 34 were the limits most frequently suggested, though some recommended 40 to 45 years as the upper limit. There was a distinctly stronger demand for raising the maximum age than for lowering the minimum. Provost Marshal General Crowder, discussing the enlargement of the age limits for selective military service said,

early in 1918, that such suggestons had been made in his report to the Secretary of War.

Q.—How many claims for exemption were granted in the first draft?

A.—Of the total number of men called for registration by the first draft (about 3 million) 1,560,570, or 50.62 per cent, made claims for exemption. Of this number, 77.86 per cent were granted. 895,150, or 73.99 per cent, were on the grounds of dependency; 228,452, or 19.67 per cent, were on the grounds of alienage; 3,877, or 0.34 per cent, were on religious grounds, and 2,001, or 0.17 per cent, were decided on grounds of moral unfitness.

The state having the highest percentage of claims allowed was Connecticut, and the lowest was Mississippi.

Q.—What percentage of men are physically fit?

A.—Using the results of the draft law as a basis, it is estimated that 76.3 per cent are physically fit. Of all the men called for physical examination by the draft, 730,756, or 23.7 per cent, were rejected on account of physical deficiencies.

Q.—Were all the citizens in the first draft sent to the camps at once?

A.—No. They were sent in increments, and early in 1918 72,000 men still remained to be assigned to cantonments. The full strength of men contemplated in the first draft was 687,000. The assignment of the full quota to camps was finished March, 1918.

Q.—Did the draft prove country boys superior to city boys?

A.—The common belief that the average of physical soundness is higher among country boys than among the city bred was not supported by the records of the selective draft.

For the purpose of comparison, selection was made of a typical set of cities of 40,000 to 500,000 population distributed over ten different states, and a corresponding set of counties of the same total size, located in the same states and containing no city of 30,000 population.

The total number of registrants in the two areas was 315,000.

The comparison resulted as follows: Of 35,017 registrants in urban areas, 9,969 were rejected. Of 44,462 registrants from rural areas, 12,432 were rejected. In other words, 28.47 per cent of the city boys were rejected against 27.96 per cent of the country boys.

Q.—How are local draft boards compensated?

A.—Section 195, Selective Service Regulation was repealed January 30th, 1918, and in lieu thereof the following was promulgated by the President: Section 195 (Amended) Local Boards—Compensation:

"The rate of compensation for members of local boards up to and including the completion of the final classification of the registrants within the respective jurisdiction of said boards shall be on the basis of 30 cents as aggregate compensation to the membership of a local board for each registrant to whom a questionnaire shall have been mailed and who shall have been finally classified in accordance with the provisions of these regulations.

"Money due for said work shall be paid in proportionate amounts to each member of a local board claiming compensation for his service, unless it shall be requested by the unanimous vote of the local board that the moneys due should be paid in some other proportion. In such case no one member shall receive more than 15 cents of the allowance of 30 cents for each classification, and no two members shall receive more than 25 cents for each classification to be distributed between them."

Q.—What was the cost of the first selective draft?

A.—The total cost of the first selective draft was $5,211,965.38. The number of registrants was 9,586,508, and the number of men called for examination was 3,082,949. The cost per man called was $1.69. The number of men who were accepted was 1,057,363, making the cost per man finally accepted $4.93.

Q.—What was the cost of Civil War recruiting?

A.—General James B. Fry, Provost Marshal General, in a report, March 17, 1866, said that the cost of recruiting men in the Civil War was $11,027,751.21 for 168,649 men drafted, or $9.84 per man, as against the cost per capita of the 1917 selective draft $4.93, making the Civil War system much higher. The money value of Civil War days also was much lower than now.

Q.—Are answers made by draft registrants open to public inspection?

A.—The answers of any registrant concerning the condition of his health, mental or physical, in response to Series II of the questions under the head entitled "Physical Fitness," in the Questionnaire, and other evidence and records upon the same subject and the answers of any registrant to the questions under Series X of the questions under the head entitled "Dependency" in the Questionnaire, except the names and addresses of the persons claimed to be dependent upon such registrant, shall not, without the consent of the registrant, be open to inspection by any person other than members of local and district boards, examining physicians, members of Medical Advisory Boards, Government Appeal Agents, and other persons connected with the administration of the selective service law, and United States Attorneys and their assistants, and officials of such bureaus or departments of the United States Government as may be designated by the Secretary of War.

Q.—May a man subject to draft go abroad?

A.—If a person is subject to draft, he does not need a passport from the State Department, if he wants to go to Canada. In that case he only needs a "permit" from a local board. For any other country, he must apply to the local board for a permit. The local board investigates the case. If the person is not likely to be called within the period of the proposed absence, or if the board is otherwise assured that favorable action will not result in evasion of or interference with the execution of the law, the local board takes from the applicant his address while absent and issues a permit, which, if approved by the Provost Marshal General, entitles him to a passport from the State Department.

Q.—What are the rules as to physical unfitness?

A.—Physical deficiencies must be present in such degree as clearly and unmistakably to disqualify the man for military service. Much is left to the physician's final judgment and discretion.

Temporary effects of acute disease or of an injury are not regarded as justifying a finding that the person so affected is not physically qualified for military service. Such conditions justify a reasonable delay in completing the physical examination in order that an opportunity for recovery may be afforded. If the deficiency is of such a nature that the service in the army will improve the physical condition of the selected man in general and eliminate the deficiency, the man is selected, entrained, and put into such kind of service as best fits his case.

Q.—Can a drafted man demand that he be sent to France?

A.—No registrant under the provision of the selective service law (and no voluntary enlisted man) can make any condition that affects his service after he has been selected or after he has been accepted for entrainment. The United States will not make any "proviso" to send any soldier or sailor anywhere at any time stipulated by the selected man or the volunteer. This rule applies to combatant and non-combatant service alike (for instance Red Cross).

Q.—How long after war will drafted men be held?

A.—It is reasonable to assume that enlisted and drafted men will not be held any longer in the service of the United States than is necessary for the safety of the country, and that soldiers and sailors will be sent home as quickly as demobilization can be effected after the war. The "Selective Service Law" provides that the selected men shall remain liable only four months after the conclusion of peace.

Q.—Are skilled technical workers exempt from military service?

A.—There are circumstances in which the need of military establishments for men expert or highly skilled is such that the national interest is better served by selecting such men into military service. The engagement in industry and agriculture is no reason for exemption.

Q.—Is a man whose wife can support herself and children exempt from draft?

A.—The "Selective Service Law" exempts no person from military service on the ground of dependency. It only authorizes the exclusion or discharge from draft of "those in a status with respect to persons dependent upon them for support which renders their exclusion or discharge advisable."

Q.—Was the first draft a thoroughly selective one?

A.—It was, of course, intended to raise our new army in a way to leave as many workers as possible on the farms, and to take men, as much as possible, from occupations which were not essential. While the full results, owing to the enormous problem and its total novelty, were not wholly reached by the draft boards, the table of numbers and percentages selected from different occupations will show how they approximated:

	Called.	Accepted.	Pct.
Beverage industries	5,752	1,472	25¾
Agriculture	782,503	205,731	26¼
Forestry	24,507	7,984	32½
Clay, glass, etc....	24,928	6,022	24
Animal husbandry.	15,642	4,570	29
General trade.....	111,541	24,892	22

Q.—What can a person under age do if he registers by mistake?

A.—He should report the case immediately to the local board. The board will investigate the claim that he is under age, and, if he is right, the local board is empowered to discharge him.

Q.—Will the draft boards accept a man before his turn comes?

A.—The men to be ordered into military service by a local board in filling any part of its quota are to be selected in the order of their liability within their class as shown on the classification list, including non-combatants. Any registrant whose order number is so early that, though not within the early part of the quota, he is within the total quota, may make application to the local board to be ordered into military service and entrained with that part of the quota of the local board to be sent next after such application.

If the granting of the application would increase the number ordered by the Adjutant General to be entrained by more than two men, the application will be denied.

Q.—What will exempt from prosecution a man who failed to register?

A.—Being at sea on registration day and registering as soon as practical after landing, or when the person had been refused the opportunity to register by the local boards.

Q.—Is a drafted man regarded as a deserter if he fails to report for the camps?

A.—Persons who are selected for military service and who absent themselves with an intent to evade military service are deserters.

They are reported to the police authorities and, if caught, are brought before the local board, which decides if the offense was willful or not. If *not* willful, the selected man is sent to a camp and the commanding officers of the camp furnished with all details of the case. If the offense is considered willful, the deserter becomes subject to the military laws of the United States.

Q.—How are drafted men sent to the camps?

A.—Local boards procure one "party ticket" for the number of men who are to be sent. A leader is provided for the party. He keeps in his personal possession the railroad and meal tickets of the party. He accompanies the conductor through the train, identifies the men of his party and, before delivering the ticket to the railroad agent or conductor, must indorse the ticket as to the correct number of the men to whom transportation is furnished.

The leader is responsible for the proper feeding of the party, and may not allow liquor to be sold to any of his men. Before arrival at a mobilization camp he must inspect them to see that they are ready to leave the train, and that each man has attached to his lapel the badge given to him before starting. On arrival at the camp, the leader must hold his own group together until they are taken in charge by an officer or a non-commissioned officer, in whose hands he must safely deliver the mobilization papers of each and all of his men.

Q.—How does the Government find out about a drafted man in a foreign country?

A.—Either before or upon receiving a notice to report for physical examination, a registrant residing in a foreign country in a place too far for a journey to the United States may, at his own expense, apply by mail, cable or telegram to be physically examined by a nearby physician appointed by the American Consul to make the examination. The consul must indorse his appointment upon the face of a "Form" sent to him by the local board in the United States residence of

the applicant. The examination is made, the physician signs a detailed report, and the local board decides as to the physical qualifications of the registrant.

Q.—Can a man appeal from the decision of a district board?

A.—The decision of the district board is, in ordinary circumstances, *final.* A person may appeal to the President in industrial and agricultural cases, when the appeal is accompanied by the written and signed recommendation of one member of the local board, and either the Government Appeal Agent or the Adjutant General of the State.

In dependency cases, the appeal must be accompanied by a signed statement of one member of the local board and either the Government Appeal Agent or an Adjutant General of the State certifying that the case is one of great and unusual hardship, stating the circumstances of hardship that will follow the going of the registrant into military service, and specifically recommending a reconsideration of the case.

The claim is examined first by the local board as to the compliance with the above rules, after which the local board forwards the claim to the Provost Marshal General. The President may rule, upon record of the case, that the appeal shall operate as a stay of induction into military service, pending further orders.

Q.—How is any insufficient quota filled?

A.—Immediately after the time of entrainment the local board must proceed to call and entrain a sufficient number of selected men to fill the deficiency, if any, in its quota.

Upon receipt of notice from the mobilization camp that any selected men of the contingent of a local board have been rejected, or, though entrained, have failed to reach such camp, the local board proceeds to call and entrain a sufficient number of selected men to fill vacancies in its quota. Men sent to fill deficiencies get at least 24 hours' notice to appear for entrainment.

Q.—Are feeble-minded persons exempt?

A.—There are various degrees of feeble-mindedness. The Selective Service Law says that "lack of normal understanding" is a cause for rejection. What is meant by normal understanding is left in each case to the discretion of the examining physicians.

Insanity, epilepsy, and organic nervous diseases are causes of rejection.

Q.—Do men with bad teeth need to serve under the draft?

A.—A man must have at least eight serviceable, natural masticating molars, four above and four below opposing, and six serviceable natural incisors, three above and three below opposing. These teeth must be so opposed that a person can cut his food and chew it.

Teeth restored by crown or fixed bridge work, when such work is well placed and thoroughly serviceable, are considered as serviceable natural teeth.

If dental work will restore the teeth to meet the requirements outlined in the preceding paragraph, the man will be accepted and sent to his cantonment, where dental work needed by him will be carried out.

Q.—Is a man previously rejected by the Regular Army exempt?

A.—Previous physical examinations are not considered valid in any case where the Selective Service Law is involved.

Q.—How about defective eyesight?

A.—In this case, the local board can rule that eyeglasses will correct the deficiency in vision. Men may be accepted, whose vision is 20/100 or better in each eye, correctable by appropriate lenses to 20/40 or better in at least one eye, provided no organic disease exists in either eye.

Q.—Which officials are exempt from draft?

A.—The Secretary to the President, heads of divisions of the various departments of the government, members of Presidential boards, Interstate Commissions, Civil Service Commission, Federal Reserve Board, Federal Trade Commission, Panama Canal Chief Officers, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, the Public Printer, Officers of the National Homes for Disabled Volunteers, Director General of the Pan-American Union, Vice-President of the United States, Senators, Secretary, Sergeant-at-Arms, and Chaplain of the Senate.

Representatives, Territorial Delegates, Resident Commissioners, Clerk, Doorkeeper, Sergeant-at-Arms, Postmaster and

Chaplain of the House of Representatives, the Superintendent of the Capitol.

Librarian and the Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds of the Library of Congress.

Judges, Clerks, Marshals and Reporters of the Supreme Court, the Court of Claims, Court of Customs Appeals, Circuit Courts of Appeals, District Courts.

Q.—Can a man be exempted on religious grounds?

A.—Any registrant found by a local board to be a member of any well-recognized religious sect or organization, organized and existing May 18, 1917, whose then existing creed or principles forbid its members to participate in war in any form, and whose religious convictions are against war or participation therein in accordance with the creed or principles of said religious organizations, may be furnished by the local board with a certificate to that effect and he can be required to serve only in a capacity declared by the President to be non-combatant.

Q.—Can a farmer claim exemption from draft?

A.—Any registrant found to be engaged in a "necessary" agricultural enterprise, and found to be "necessary" to such enterprise in the capacity of sole managing, controlling, and directing head of the enterprise, may be exempted.

Q.—Will the draft law continue in effect after peace is made?

A.—The "Selective Service Law" (draft law) is framed only "for the period of the war." The men selected are liable for that period, and for four months after peace is signed.

Q.—Is an alien who has taken out his first citizenship papers subject to draft?

A.—By the Act entitled: "An Act to authorize the President to increase temporarily the Military Establishment of the United States," approved May 18, 1917, the President was authorized "to draft into the Military Service of the United States, all male citizens or male persons, *not alien enemies*, who have declared their intention to become citizens, between the ages of 21 and 30 years, both inclusive." This authorized the drafting of all aliens other than German and Austrian.

Q.—Are alien enemies exempt from registration?

A.—Many persons confuse registration with draft. Each is a distinct process. Exemptions are granted after draft and not before. Even convicts and alien enemies (both of whom are exempt from draft) are obliged to register. There are no exceptions to the rule that all male persons in the United States between the ages of 18 and 45 inclusive must register, except those already in the Federal Military or Naval Service.

Q.—What was the Alien Draft Bill?

A.—It was a bill introduced by Senator Chamberlain in 1917 to draft into the Army aliens resident in the United States, and it was in response to a general demand that British, French, Italian and other subjects of the Allied Powers be obliged to give military service as American citizens did.

The bill was not pressed, because the State Department feared that it might lead to a great dispute about treaties, and impel Allied Powers to impress Americans then resident in their territories. The State Department, however, immediately began diplomatic negotiations with the Allies.

Q.—Was it intended to impress Germans and Austrians to fight their countries?

A.—No. Such a suggestion was never even entertained. They were specifically excepted in the bill, and a clause provided that they might be drafted for non-combatant work only. The chief purpose was to draft those Nationals on whose side the United States was fighting.

Q.—What agreements were made finally to draft friendly aliens?

A.—The conclusion of an agreement with Great Britain and Canada was announced January 30, 1918, through a letter written by the Secretary of State to Vice-President Marshall as President of the Senate. The important provision of this agreement was that subjects of Great Britain or Canada were to have a stated time in which they might return to their own countries to serve. If they remained in this country beyond that time they would come under American draft regulations.

Q.—What are non-essential occupations?

A.—A ruling by the Provost Marshal General, effective July 1, 1918, declared the following to be non-useful occupations: (1) serving food and drink; (2) men operating passenger elevators, doormen, footmen, attendants in clubs, hotels, office buildings, etc.; (3) ushers, attendants at games, sports and amusements; (4) domestic service; (5) sales clerks. On July 9, 1918, the Secretary of War ruled that baseball players were considered as engaged in non-essential occupation and if of draft age had to choose between military service or effective employment.

Q.—What were the ages of men in the Civil War?

A.—More than 2 million are said to have enlisted first and last who were under 21. More than a million of enlistments were under 18. Those from 15 to 16 amounted to almost 850,000, according to one estimate. The men of 18 were found to make excellent soldiers.

Q.—How many men were drafted in August?

A.—On August 8, 1918, under the original Selective Draft and before the second bill had been enacted into law, the Provost Marshal General called 130,207 to join the colors before the end of August. This, it was calculated, would bring the total number of men called in August, 1918, to 300,000 men.

Q.—Are women alien enemies?

A.—The term "alien enemy," as at present defined by statute, includes all natives, citizens, denizens, or subjects of a foreign nation or government with which war has been declared, being males of the age of fourteen years and upward who shall be within the United States and not actually naturalized as American citizens.

Females were not alien enemies within the statutory definition; but a succeeding regulation under the Espionage Act extended its provisions to them.

Q.—Is an alien who has taken out first citizenship papers classed as an alien enemy?

A.—The Department of Justice authorizes the statement under the definition of alien enemy, Section 3: "A male native, citizen, denizen or subject of a foreign nation or government with which war has been declared is an alien enemy, even though he has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States by taking out first papers of naturalization or has been partly or completely naturalized in any country other than the United States." Thus a German who had, let us say, become a citizen of Mexico (a neutral country) would still be considered an alien enemy.

Q.—What is the best way to send presents to France?

A.—Money may be sent at domestic rates, payable at a "United States Mail Agency in France." In drawing order the office of payment should be designated as "U. S. Army Postal Service," and in the coupon the name of the payee should be followed on the next line by the regiment and company, or other organization to which the payee belongs.

The original regulation was that all articles admissible to the domestic parcel post might be sent to the Expeditionary Forces overseas, on requests endorsed by soldiers' commanding officers, if carefully packed and properly addressed, and if they did not include intoxicants, poisons, inflammable articles (including friction matches), or compositions which might kill or injure another or damage the mails. This regulation was suspended in the early part of 1918 to prevent congestion on the ships.

Q.—How does America protect its soldiers financially?

A.—The government provides a compensation of $25 a month to the wife (during widowhood), child, or widowed mother of any man killed or permanently disabled in the line of duty.

In addition, Congress authorized, on October 6, 1917, the offering of insurance, secured by the government, to all officers, enlisted men, and members of the nurse corps in the Army and Navy who should apply before February 12, 1918 (this time being afterwards extended to April 12th)—or within 120 days after enlistment.

Q.—Are all soldiers eligible to government insurance?

A.—This bill makes all officers and men in both branches of the service eligible.

strength since April 6th, 1917, from 9,524 officers, and 202,510 enlisted men to 123,801 officers and 1,528,924 enlisted men."

Q.—How soon did we send men abroad?

A.—Within 10 weeks after we declared a state of war, the first American contingent landed safely in France.

Q.—Was there a system for selecting men for their best qualities?

A.—A vast system of analysis was adopted and put into operation known as the "occupational census."

Q.—How was it obtained?

A.—By establishing at each cantonment a big organization of men who had experience in vocational service. The previous occupation, educational qualifications and even the preference for service of each enlisted man were recorded on individual cards. The records were classified, analyzed, filed, and the data collected was given to the Divisional Commanders, thus enabling them to make the best possible assignment.

Q.—Did we succeed in preventing illness?

A.—We succeeded wonderfully. By the end of our first year of war we were able to say that the huge army of drafted men had not only escaped the disease which formerly was such a dreaded result of forming armies, but that they had actually improved wonderfully in health, weight and strength.

Q.—How big was our Medical Department?

A.—In April, 1918, after the first year of war, this branch had 18,000 officers and 98,000 enlisted men. At the beginning of the war there were 373 Army Nurses. The full complement called for 24,126 and it was contemplated to have 39,000 nurses called ultimately.

Q.—What is the scope of the army's Medical Department?

A.—First the organization of base and field hospitals, as well as general and highly specialized work in modern pathology, therapeutics and surgery. By scientific care they must keep the troops in fighting trim, for this is even more important than mending the wounded. The Medical Department also is responsible for the inspection of all food supplies, the study of the true nutritive value of rations under different climatic and working conditions, as well as the stamping out of infectious and preventable disease, etc. A new and highly important branch that was established is the "Division of Psychology."

Q.—What is the Division of Psychology?

A.—It studies the men mentally. It thus assists in the selection of men mentally qualified for important duties and it weeds out the unfit. This scientific supervision strengthens the fighting units by discovering beforehand what men are not strong enough to stand the strain of battle, and these are assigned to duties they can fill.

Q.—What was done for the moral well-being of the drafted men?

A.—The War Department assumed the responsibility for their morals and general spiritual condition. The Commission on Training Camp Activities was created to "supply the normal ties of life to nearly a million and a half young men in training camps, to keep the environs of these camps clean and wholesome and to rationalize as far as it can be done, the bewildering environment of a war camp."

Recretive athletic work, camp singing, co-operative stores, and library facilities were in full swing by April, 1918, and there was systematic education on sex hygiene. The suppression of vice and of alcoholism in big areas around each camp was a highly successful part of this work.

Q.—Were our first troops abroad supplied with American heavy artillery?

A.—Secretary Baker said in regard to this: "It was proposed to us that to expedite the equipment of American Armies in France and assure the maximum development of the munition supply with a minimum strain on available tonnage, French and British gun factories should supply our needs, and this was done without placing any undue burden on their war industry."

Q.—Did the French and British succeed in supplying our men?

A.—The Secretary of War says that

their production of field, medium and heavy artillery was so great that all American divisions arriving in France throughout 1918 could be equipped with the best type of British and French guns and howitzers.

Q.—What facilities did we have for producing big guns?

A.—We had great facilities as is shown by the fact that from the middle of August, 1914, to the middle of June, 1917, the British Government placed orders in America for ammunition and ordnance costing about $1,308,000,000. During seven months ending December, 1917, the War Department made 63,000,000 shells worth nearly $1,000,000,000 and gave orders amounting to nearly $1,500,000,000, for guns and munitions.

In the first year after our entrance into war, the Ordnance Department averaged 20 contracts a day with a daily expenditure of $6,000,000.

Q.—How much artillery were we producing at the end of our first year?

A.—"After 10 months of war we had begun to produce an amount equal to fully 50 per cent of the amount of artillery produced in France," is a statement made with official sanction on April 6, 1918.

Q.—How many small arms were we producing?

A.—September, 1917, we produced 2,500 rifles weekly. By the end of October we were producing 5.000. In November, 1917, we produced 7,500, in December 8,500 and in March, 1918, we had reached a weekly production of 11,550 in three private factories alone, while the great Government arsenals were producing in March, 1918, as follows: Springfield Arsenal (Massachusetts) 1,000 a day; Rock Island Arsenal (Illinois), 500 a day.

Q.—What was our output of small arms ammunition?

A.—In February, 1918, we had reached a monthly production of 125 million rounds.

Q.—How was our General Staff organized?

A.—A "War Council" was established and an important change made in the General Staff providing for five assistant chiefs each responsible for a certain part of the work of the military establishment.

Q.—How much had we expended for aviation?

A.—For the army alone we appropriated as follows: on July 24, 1917, Congress voted $640,000,000 for the Air Service; a total of $744,000,000 was provided for the fiscal year and $1,032,000,000 had been asked for 1918-1919.

Q.—How did our navy increase in the first year of war?

A.—Figures issued in April, 1918, made the following comparison:

Strength on April 6, 1917			
Regular Navy	64,680	4,366	69,046
Marine Corps	13,266	426	13,692
	77,946	4,792	

Strength of Auxiliary Branches as called into service at beginning of war:

Naval Reserve Force (approximately)	10,000
National Naval Volunteers (approximately)	9,000
Coast Guard	4,500

War strength in 1918

(This is not quite up to the end of the first year. The navy had grown after the figures were prepared.)

	Enlisted Men	*Officers*	*Total*
Regular Navy ..	191,709	7,781	199,490
Naval Reserve force	78,195	10,033	88,228
Marine Corps...	38,512	1,434	39,946
National Naval Volunteers ...	15,000	822	15,822
Coast Guard....	4,250	639	4,889
	327,666	20,709	
Total, officers and men		348,375	

Q.—What was the actual increase shown by these figures?

A.—Naval Reserve Force, 78,000; National Naval Volunteers, 6,800; Regular Navy, 130,444; Marine Corps, 26,254.

Q.—What other naval increases were there?

A.—The Hospital Corps increased from 1,600 to over 8,000. Mechanics employed

in navy yards increased from 35,000 to 66,000. There were added, also, 7,000 civilian employees at navy yards. Civilian employees in the Navy Department increased from 700 to 1,800; and in addition 1,200 reservists were on duty in the Department. There were 1,397 midshipmen in the Naval Academy, Annapolis, Md. The personel of the naval service, with the 350,000 officers and enlisted men amounted to more than 425,000 persons.

Q.—How much money did we spend on the navy?

A.—At the end of the first year of war, the account stood as follows:

Appropriations

Act of August 29, 1916....	$312,888,060.25
Act of March 4, 1917.....	516,491,802.08
Act of June 15, 1917.....	514,805,033.87
Act of October 6, 1917....	561,436,023.50
	$1,905,620,919.70

Appropriations Pending

Urgent Deficiency Bill..	$ 66,321,672.00
Naval Appropriation Act	1,270,595,655.04
	$1,336,917,327.04
Further authority to incur obligations to.....	$34,264,000.00
Total	$3,276,802,346.74

Q.—How does this compare with what we used to spend?

A.—According to the Navy Year Book for 1916 (government publication), we had spent altogether $3,367,160,591 for all naval purposes from 1794 to 1916. Thus, the total of appropriations for the fiscal year 1917, those made during 1917 and those pending in April, 1918, was within $90,358,245 of the total expenditures of the Navy from 1794 to 1916, inclusive.

Q.—What did we do to train sailors?

A.—To train and house men of the Navy and Marine Corps we provided in the first year twenty huge camps. The Jamestown Exposition site on Hampton Roads, near Norfolk, Va., was made into our first Fleet Operating Base. The San Diego, Cal., and Gulfport, Miss., exposition grounds were taken over and converted into camps. The Great Lakes Training Station, near Chicago, was enlarged to accommodate 20,000 men. Older stations, like that at Newport, R. I., were expanded, and new stations were erected at Pelham Bay, N. Y., for 10,000 reserves; at Charleston for 5,000 men; at Cape May, N. J., and several other points. A great new camp for Marines was established at Quantico, Va., for 8,500 men.

Q.—How many destroyers did we build in the first year of war?

A.—The number and details can not be given, but Josephus Daniels, Secretary of the Navy, said in a review of the first year of war that the United States "is now building more destroyers than there were in any other two navies before 1914, and constructing them in half the time which had been customary in peace times."

Q.—What had we done in merchant ship building?

A.—At the end of the first year of war we had begun to deliver ships in steadily increasing ratio and there was positive assurance that we should soon reach the "quantity production" which we actually did reach by July, 1918. The delivery of ships already was well under way by April 6, 1918. In January 11 steel vessels with a dead-weight tonnage of 91,441 were delivered, in February 16 vessels with a dead-weight tonnage of 123,100. Ten vessels with a tonnage of 82,300 had been delivered early in March, and before the end of the first year of war enough more were delivered to bring the added new tonnage to almost 200,000.

Q.—How many shipyards did we have by April, 1918?

A.—Built or in course of construction there were 30 new steel shipyards with a total of 203 shipbuilding ways. This, with 37 yards already existing, made an aggregate of 67 steel shipyards with a total of 398 building ways. Thirty-five yards with 258 ways were on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts—19 with 66 ways on the Pacific and 13 with 74 ways on the Great Lakes. The 37 existing yards had increased their shipbuilding ways from 162 to 195. There were also 332 launching ways built or in process of construction for wooden ships. Up to March 1st, 1918, 281 keels for wooden and composite vessels were laid.

Q.—What tonnage did these keels represent?

A.—On March 1st, 1918, the total dead-weight tonnage of Ferris Standard 35,000-

ton ships alone whose keels had been laid, amounted to 866,500 tons. Ferris ships under construction in all parts of the country then made a total of 1,123,500 tons. To this were added the other steel ships and the wooden and composite ships.

Q.—What full tonnage capacity had the new yards?

A.—It was calculated that the 67 steel yards should turn out 7,000,000 dead-weight tonnage of steel merchant ships every year. Enough wooden ship tonnage was expected to make a total of 9,300,000 dead-weight tonnage yearly capacity when the yards were finished. They were 70 per cent completed at the end of our first year of war.

Q.—How many men were engaged in ship building?

A.—In March, 1918, there were 170,589 engaged in actual ship construction. Enough others were busy in yard construction, etc., to bring the whole number up to 236,000. This was against 45,000 men engaged in 1916 in all the shipyards of the country.

Q.—What are the Shipyard Volunteers?

A.—The U. S. Shipyard Volunteers is a reserve organization of skilled mechanics, who stand ready to go to the shipyards when called.

On January 28th, 1918, a drive to enroll 250,000 skilled mechanics in the U. S. Shipyard Volunteers was started, calling on men from every line of industry who could develop into good shipworkers. By March 1, 1918, the enrollment was almost full.

Q.—How had we taught these men to build ships?

A.—An instruction training center was established at Newport News, Va., and 247 skilled mechanics, selected from 22 yards, were detailed for a six weeks' course of intensive training, to fit them as instructors for recruits brought into the shipyards. One hundred and fifteen of these, representing 16 trades, had completed the course by April, 1918, and had been sent out as instructors. The men taking this instruction course would, it was estimated, be able to train 37,000 men.

Q.—How will our shipbuilding compare with the world's production?

A.—Edward N. Hurley, Chairman of the United States Shipping Board, said in a survey of the first year's work: "The Hog Island shipyard with 50 ways building 8,000-ton ships, when it is organized and running to its maximum capacity, will turn out in one year 55 per cent of the greatest amount of tonnage which Great Britain has ever turned out in any single year. Her maximum output was in 1913, when she built 688 merchant vessels—representing 2,898,229 dead-weight tons. Hog Island, when running at full capacity should turn out 1,600,000 deadweight tons a year from materials fabricated in different parts of the country, brought into the yard on freight cars, and run to the ways and then put together."

Q.—What is the Fuel Administration?

A.—It is a department created by Act of Congress to assure "an adequate supply and equitable distribution" of fuel. Its central administration is in Washington and the organization extends to every State, to the District of Columbia and to Cuba. The state organizations reach into all the counties and even the communities, so that, in every section where coal is mined or consumed, a relation is established with the United States Fuel Administration.

Q.—Were we producing enough transport equipment?

A.—By April, 1918, factories were turning out 1,000 war-trucks (carrying 3 to 5 tons) a month. We had placed orders for 6,500 three-ton trucks and 3,100 one-and-one-half-ton trucks for supply trains; 3,812 motor ambulances; 4,000 trucks for engineers; 7,900 three-and-one-half-ton and one and one-half-ton trucks for the Signal Corps; 7,500 four-wheel drive three-ton trucks for ordnance, 9,000 two-ton trucks, 2,000 one-ton trucks and 2,350 light trucks, all for the ordnance service. Besides these we had ordered an immense amount of miscellaneous transport equipment, such as 251 tank-trucks; 400 motor-cars, 7-passenger; 2,409 motor-cars, 5-passenger; 238 motor-cars, 2-passenger; 4,210 motor-cycles with side car; 700 motor-cycles, solo; 9,003 bicycles; 14 cargo-trailers for tractors, and 388 cargo-trailers for trucks.

POPULATIONS AND RELIGIONS

Q.—What is the population of the United States?

A.—At the census of 1910 the total population was 91,972,266, of whom 81,732,000 were whites and 9,828,000 were negroes. The Indians numbered 308,000. The total foreign-born population was, in that year, 13,515,886. Of these, 2,501,181 had been born in Germany, 1,602,702 in Russia, 1,352,151 in Ireland 1,343,070 in Italy, 1,174,924 in Austria, 1,201,143 in Canada, 876,455 in England, and 665,183 in Sweden. The present population of the United States is estimated at a little more than 102,000,000.

Q.—How many native-born Germans and Austrians are in America?

A.—According to the Federal census of 1910 (the last official and authoritative enumeration made in the United States) there were the following native-born Austrians, Germans and Hungarians in the United States:—

Native Austrians	1,174,973
Native Germans	2,501,333
Native Hungarians	495,609
Total	4,171,915

Of native-born Americans, with one or both parents born in Germany or Austria-Hungary, there were at that time in the United States:—

Americans with one or both parents born in Austria....	826,635
Americans with one or both parents born in Germany...	5,781,437
Americans with one or both parents born in Hungary....	204,627
Total	6,812,699

This gives a total of native-born Germans and Austro-Hungarians and their children of the first generation of 10,984,614.

Q.—How many Germans were living in England when the war broke out?

A.—H. Samuel, on June 29, 1916, gave the following figures:—At the beginning of the war there were 75,000 Germans and Austrians living in the United Kingdom, excluding British-born wives, of whom there were 10,000 or 11,000. Children are not included in these figures. Of this total of 75,000, 21,000, principally women, were repatriated, or allowed to go to other countries; this left 54,000. Of these 32,000 had been interned, leaving 22,000 un-interned. Of the un-interned, 4,000 belong to friendly races, viz., Alsatians, Italians from the Trentino, Czechs, and the like.

Q.—How many Germans are there in Brazil?

A.—The total population of Brazil is not accurately known, but it is estimated at 24,400,000. Between 1820 and 1907 93,000 German immigrants reached the country, and there has been a slow influx since. In 1912, for instance, the immigrants from Germany numbered 5,773. Practically all the Germans live in the Southern provinces, and the total number of Brazilians of German parentage is estimated to be about 400,000. Sometimes, it is given as half a million.

Q.—Do the Germans live in separate communities?

A.—They live for the most part in separate communities, though there is considerable intermarriage. Their presence, and that of the Italians, who are still more numerous, has made the southern provinces of Brazil far the most prosperous.

Q.—Do they take much share in the government of the provinces where they dwell?

A.—They are most numerous in the province of Rio Grande do Sul, their number there being estimated at 250,000. "They form," says Lord Bryce, of Great Britain, "a compact community which preserves its national habits and manages its own affairs with little interference by the central Government. It is, in fact, disposed to resent any such interference, and to 'run things' in its own solid German way." Hiram Bingham, who is an English authority in South American matters, said in 1911: "The Germans in Southern Brazil are a negligible factor in international affairs, but the well-educated young German who is being sent out to capture South America commercially is a power to be reckoned with. He is going to damage Eng-

land more truly than dreadnaughts or gigantic airships."

Q.—It is said that for ten years there had been 400,000 German Reservists in Rio Grande do Sul and Sao Paulo. Is that so?

A.—The number of people of German descent in Brazil is less than half a million, according to official statements by the Brazilian Government. This being the case, it is impossible that there could be anything like 400,000 Germans of fighting age there. The immigration of Germans—men, women and children—into Brazil during the last ten years has averaged less than 4,000 per annum. These figures would appear still further to minimize any possible number of reservists—that is, men trained in the German army.

Q.—What is the birth rate in the fighting countries?

A.—In 1912, it was 19 per thousand. The death rate was 17.5. Even in the first six months of 1914, there were no less than 17,000 fewer births in France than there were deaths. Since the war began the number of marriages has fallen off greatly. For the last six months of 1914, these totalled only 43,585, as against 122,754 for the last six months of 1913. This is a decrease of no less than 65 per cent! From April to August, 1915, there were one-fifth fewer births in the 26 largest German cities than during the same time in 1914. The British Registrar-General reports that the birth rate in Great Britain for the second quarter of 1915 was the lowest since civil registration was established.

Q.—Is the French population chiefly agricultural or industrial?

A.—More than one-sixth of the whole population is engaged normally in manufacturing industry. This is without counting those engaged in affairs closely related to manufactures, such as mining, quarrying, transportation, etc. Counting these in, the total represents almost one-fifth of the population. The Frenchmen engaged in commerce number less than one-half of those in manufacturing industries. The people engaged in agriculture and forestry represent another one-fifth of the total population. Thus agriculture and manufacture lead about evenly in France. A curious fact is that less than 2 per cent of the population is enumerated as among the "liberal professions," meaning law, medicine, literature, art, etc.

Q.—Has the German birth-rate fallen while infantile death-rates increase?

A.—Official figures are not obtainable, but the following are said to be accurate:—

Year.	Births.	Infant deaths.
1913	1,839,000	277,000
1914	1,820,000	207,000
1915	1,416,000	216,000
1916	1,103,000	167,000

These figures would show that the infantile death rate has not increased, but has remained pretty constant at about 15.1 per cent of the new births. But the decrease in births is striking and it would indicate the war has heavily checked the nation's normal increase of population.

Q.—What were the comparative rates in Germany before war?

A.—The falling off of the birth rate had begun to cause concern. In Dresden, for example, the figures were: 1903, deaths, 8,570; births, 15,423. In 1913 the proportion had changed to deaths, 7,329; births, 11,297. In 1915 there was a further change in proportion: deaths, 6,406; births, 7,371.

Thus, while the births were in excess of deaths each year, the ratio of births as against deaths showed a steady decline.

It is obvious that the war will have changed this proportion still more and much for the worse.

Q.—What is the population of Spain?

A.—20,330,000. The country is rather sparsely peopled—only 104 to the square mile. In Germany there are 324, in the United Kingdom 378. Holland, with 6,200,000 inhabitants, has 493 to the square mile. Norway, with a population of 2,416,000, has a density of only 19, but Sweden's 5,960,000 dwell 32 to the square mile. Switzerland is a very small country, but manages to get 239 people to the square mile, and has a population of 3,830,000. Only 2,780,000 people live in Denmark. The land is poor, but intensely cultivated, there being 180 folk to the square mile.

Q.—What is the population of Russia?

A.—The Russian Empire has about 170,000,000 inhabitants. Of these 27,000,000 live in Asia. There are, of course, very many races in Russia, but the Slavs predominate. They mostly belong to the Greek Church. About 11,000,000 Mohammedans, 12,000,000 Roman Catholics, 6,000,000 Jews, are the other notable religious bodies. It is estimated that only 50,000,000 Russians can read and write; the rest are illiterate.

Q.—Which country has the largest birth rate?

A.—Russia (44 per thousand), but Roumania and Bulgaria run her close. Following these come Hungary (36.3), Japan (33.9), Italy (32.4), Austria (31.3), German Empire (28.3), Commonwealth of Australia (28.3), Holland (28.1), Scotland (25.9), England and Wales (23.8), Ireland (23.0), Belgium (22.9), France (19.0).

Q.—Are the death rates in much the same proportion?

A.—Not the same. Russia is highest (28.9), but France (17.5), is nowhere near the bottom of the table. Germany is 15.6, England and Wales 13.3.

Q.—What is the population of Scotland?

A.—At the last census, in 1911, it was 4,760,904. Particulars of the number of volunteers from Scotland are not obtainable, but it is known that when it came to conscription it was found that but few available men were left. The great majority had already joined the colors.

Q.—What is the exact population of Japan, and what that of China?

A.—The number of persons in Japan and her dependencies, including Korea, is estimated at 73,440,000, which works out at 279 per square mile. The population of China and dependencies is estimated at 320,650,000, only 82 people to the square mile. The number of people in Japan proper, in 1910, was 50,750,000. Some 1,700,000 babies are born there every year. In Russia it is interesting to note that the number of births in 1912 was estimated at more than 7,000,000.

Q.—Is the population of Japan increasing rapidly?

A.—The annual increase is 600,000 (births 1,700,000, deaths 1,110,000). That of the United Kingdom is about 400,000; that of France about 20,000. In Germany the surplus of births over deaths was about 900,000 every year. In Russia the annual increase was no less than 2,500,000. In Austria it was 300,000, and in Hungary 250,000, that is, 550,000 for the whole of the dual empire. The Bulgarians are a most prolific race, the balance of births over deaths being about 85,000 annually.

Q.—What is the German-born population of Australia?

A.—According to Mr. Knibbs, 32,990. The same authority states that 590,722 people who were born in the United Kingdom are now in the Commonwealth—20,775 Chinese, 14,775 Scandinavians, 6,644 British Indians, 6,719 Italians, 6,642 Americans.

Q.—Does life, morally, in Germany, compare unfavorably with other great Powers?

A.—The figures are interesting. The following table gives the number of illegitimate births per thousand births in different countries for the quinquennial period, 1901-1905:—

Netherlands	23
Ireland	26
England and Wales	40
South Australia	41
West Australia	42
Spain	44
New Zealand	45
*Switzerland	45
Italy	56
*Tasmania	57
Scotland	64
Queensland	65
*Finland	66
Belgium	68
New South Wales	70
Victoria	70
*Norway	74
Germany	84
France	88
Hungary	94
Denmark	101
*Sweden	113
*Portugal	121
*Austria	141

Those marked (*) are for the period 1896-1900. The United States has no national system of registered births, and the Russian figures are so incomplete

as to be quite unreliable. If we divide the above figures by five, we get the yearly number of illegitimate babies per thousand births.

Q.—Is it really true that there are an immense number of war babies in Great Britain?

A.—In 1915 there was a great agitation in England to reform the illegitimacy laws, to legalize the position of the girls who were "giving themselves to the country." Charity was asked for in order to support the children of the "absent-minded beggars at the front." The Government was urged to adopt these children as the nation's wards. Cold statistics prove that all this was much ado about nothing. The Registrar-General gives the number of illegitimate births in England and Wales, for the months of April, May and June, 1915, as 9,644. This, although a deplorably large number, is 333 less than for the corresponding period of 1914. That is to say, the call to arms has reduced the evil, not increased it. It is the same in France.

Q.—What was the population of Great Britain at the time of the Napoleonic wars?

A.—In 1801 it was 10,942,000. The population of London at that time was 864,800, that of Glasgow was 77,000. In 1850, just before the Crimean war, the population of Great Britain was 20,936,000, and of London 2,360,000.

Q.—Has Germany been drained of her people by emigration to anything like the extent of the United Kingdom?

A.—Men and women are not one of Germany's principal exports. The yearly departure for the last decade has only once touched 30,000, and averages about 20,000. Practically all these went to the United States. The average emigration from Ireland for many years has been more than 30,000 per annum, and in the sixty years from 1851 to 1909 the island lost no less than 4,154,986 of its inhabitants in this way. The total emigration from the United Kingdom has reached 500,000 a year and has averaged more than 200,000 a year for the last decade. This means that, after making all allowances for immigration into the country, the United Kingdom has lost more than 2,000,000 men, women and children during the last ten years by emigration.

Q.—How many foreigners lived in Germany before the war?

A.—In December, 1910 (the last figures that seem reliable or available), there were 1,259,873 subjects of foreign governments in Germany. Of these 17,572 were from the United States and 6,253 from other American States, making a total of 23,825 Americans. There were 667,159 Austro-Hungarians, 137,697 Russians and Finns, 144,175 Dutch, 104,204 Italians, and 68,257 Swiss, with the balance apportioned among Belgians, Danes, French, British and Scandinavians.

Q.—How many foreigners usually visit Switzerland?

A.—A few years before the war the figures showed 552,011 foreign visitors—pretty good for a country with only 3,800,000 population of its own.

Q.—What languages do the Swiss speak?

A.—Besides their own dialect, the various cantons speak German, French, Italian and Roumansch.

Q.—Most British emigrants go to British colonies, do they not?

A.—They do not, although during the last quinquennial period before the war something more than half went to Canada, Australia and other parts of the Empire. But 100,000 at least, often 200,000, have been steadily going to the United States every year for very many years.

Q.—Is it true that a naturalized German in Australia ceases to be a British or Australian subject once he is beyond the three-mile limit?

A.—Any foreigner naturalized in Australia ceases to enjoy the privileges of British citizenship as soon as he leaves the country, as the British Government does not recognize its responsibility for anyone naturalized in the colonies. An attempt to alter this anomalous state of affairs was made in the British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act, which received the royal assent on August 7, 1914, and came into force on January 1, 1915. It is, however, specifically stated in the Act that it does not apply to, nor does any certificate of naturalization granted thereunder have any effect in the Commonwealth, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and Newfoundland, unless the Act is there adopted. As this has

not been done in Australia, any foreigner naturalized there is under the same disabilities as formerly—he ceases to enjoy the privileges of British citizenship as soon as he leaves the country.

Q.—Have the Germans cancelled the naturalization papers of enemy subjects who are still residing in Germany?

A.—There is no absolutely authentic information on the subject, but apparently they have not cancelled them. As far as can be gathered from reports there are no foreigners who have acquired German nationality interned in Ruhleben, although a good number of the "Australians" who are interned there are Germans who became naturalized here. Their naturalization is therefore apparently recognized by the German authorities. The irony of the situation is that if these Australians were liberated and sent back to Australia, they would probably be interned as Germans.

Q.—What are the populations of the South American republics?

Brazil	24,400,000
Argentine	7,500,000
Colombia	5,100,000
Peru	4,500,000
Chile	3,550,000
Venezuela	2,760,000
Bolivia	2,520,000
Ecuador	1,500,000
Uruguay	1,300,000
Paraguay	800,000
Panama	400,000
British Guiana	300,000

Q.—Is this a war of religion?

A.—This is not, in any sense, a religious war, for Roman Catholics are fighting Roman Catholics, Protestants are furiously struggling with Protestants, Greek Catholics are opposed to Greek Catholics, and in a few cases even Mohammedans are slaying Mohammedans. The figures are interesting:—

Roman Catholics	164,000,000
Greek Church	113,000,000
Protestants	95,000,000
Mohammedans	24,000,000

Q.—Are more Roman Catholics on the side of the Allies or of the Central Powers?

A.—There are far more on the Allies' side. It is estimated that the number of Roman Catholics in Germany and Austria is 24,000,000 and 31,000,000 respectively. There are a few thousand Roman Catholics only in Bulgaria. France and Italy are Roman Catholic, and in the United Kingdom there are 6,000,000 professing this faith. The Poles are Roman Catholics; so are the Portuguese. The Serbian religion is Greek Orthodox; so is the Russian.

Q.—What is the number of adherents to the different religions of the world?

A.—There are estimated to be in the world:—

Roman Catholics	272,860,000
Greek Catholics	120,000,000
Protestants	171,650,000
Jews	12,200,000
Mohammedans	222,000,000
Buddhists	138,000,000
Hindus	210,500,000
Confucianists & Taoists	300,000,000
Shintoists	25,000,000
Animists	158,000,000
Miscellaneous	15,000,000

That is, of a total of 1,646,000,000, roughly two-thirds are non-Christian and one-third Christian.

Q.—What are Animists?

A.—They are the races that have a primitive form of religion, which expresses itself in such practices as worship of the spirits of the dead, worship of animals and plants, belief in a sky or underworld inhabited by corporeal beings, etc.

Q.—Are there many Mohammedans in India?

A.—At the census taken in 1911 the total population of India was found to be 315,156,396, of whom 217,586,892 were Hindus, 66,647,299 were Mohammedans, 10,721,453 were Buddhists, and 3,876,203 were Christians. Of the total only 18,539,578 persons could read and write. Two million persons were employed in taking this census, which cost only £135,000 ($680,000).

Q.—Is there religious freedom in Germany?

A.—In Germany there is entire liberty of conscience, and complete social equality among all religious confessions. The

Jesuit Order, however, was interdicted until lately in Germany. The Roman Catholics are in a majority in Alsace-Lorraine, Bavaria and Baden, and form more than 20 per cent of the population in Oldenburg, Württemberg, Hessen and Prussia.

Q.—Is there a religious revival abroad since the Great War began?

A.—There appears to be a great revival throughout the length and breadth of France. It is real, say those who have studied it; the most real, tangible, ponderable thing in the war. In view of such incidents as the bombardment of Paris on Palm Sunday by the German super-gun (when women and children at worship were killed by a shell which struck the Cathedral), it is striking to receive assurances that the German churches too are thronged.

Q.—Was the Great Mosque of St. Sophia in Constantinople originally a Christian Cathedral?

A.—It was built by Justinian in 538, and replaced two earlier churches of the same name. The first one, built by Constantine, the founder of the city, was burnt in 404; the second, erected by Theodosius II, in 415, also was destroyed by fire. St. Sophia, until the Turks took it, was under the control of the Greek Church, which was not definitely separated from the Latin Church until the great schism of the ninth century. The beautiful paintings and mosaics of the saints inside the building were not all destroyed by the Turks, but wings were painted over their faces, as such figures were prohibited by the Mohammedan religion.

SHIP DESTRUCTION

Q.—How much shipping has submarine warfare destroyed?

A.—During the first 3½ years of the war, the most conflicting figures were given to the world. Official and unofficial statements in Europe were alternately encouraging and alarming, but very few gave specific and authoritative facts. American experts, by close calculations, arrived at figures that lay between the British and German, and indicated seriously alarming diminution of the world's tonnage.

On March 21, 1918, the British Admiralty suddenly made public its figures, kept secret until then, and they bore out the American opinion. The Admiralty figures showed that the loss of world tonnage from the beginning of war to the end of 1917 (thus including the first year, less a month, of unrestricted submarine warfare) amounted to 11,827,572 gross tons. It was stated that the figures included losses from the regular risks of the sea and also Allied tonnage interned in German ports. The latter amounted to 132,829 tons. Deducting it we had 11,694,743 gross tons lost utterly to the world.

Q.—What is the normal ship loss through storm and other risks?

A.—The average of total losses for twenty years shows a loss in peace time of about 156,000 tons a year, but as the world's tonnage has increased every year, of course this average loss must be figured as increasing year by year. After war began the demand for tonnage caused many old ships to be put into service, and, as a good proportion of these probably was not highly seaworthy, the losses from storm, etc., must have increased quite beyond the normal average. Lacking precise figures, only a guess can be made; but if we guess that the loss from natural causes was a million tons from the beginning of war to March 1, 1918, we are probably making an exceedingly generous estimate. This would make the total sunk by submarines 10,694,743 tons.

Q.—What was the total ship loss before unrestricted warfare began?

A.—The British Admiralty figures of March 21, 1918, show the following: 1914—498,534 tons; 1915 1,724,720 tons; 1916—2,797,866 tons, making a total of 5,021,120 gross tons. As the submarine warfare through that period was only against Allied shipping, with only such neutral ships sunk as were carrying contraband, the heaviest part of the loss was British and French.

Q.—How much tonnage loss was British up to the beginning of unrestricted warfare?

A.—The British losses (counting only the ships registered as belonging to the United Kingdom) were given by the Admiralty as follows: 1914—285,899 tons; 1915—1,108,379 tons; 1916—1,497,848 tons; making a total to January 1, 1918, of 2,892,126 gross tons.

Q.—Did the first year of unrestricted submarine warfare increase the British loss heavily?

A.—A little more than four million tons were sunk from January 1, 1917, to December 31, 1917—that is, in the first year of unrestricted submarine warfare the British merchant marine lost one and one-third times as much tonnage as it had lost in all the previous years of the war. Unrestricted submarine warfare began on February 1, 1917. Therefore these figures, while taking in one month before it began, and leaving out one month (January, 1918), are close enough. The total British tonnage sunk in 1917 was exactly 4,009,537, according to the Admiralty figures.

Q.—How much shipping of all nations was destroyed in the first year of unrestricted warfare?

A.—British, 4,009,537 tons; other nations (including both Allies and neutrals), 2,614,086 gross tons. Total of world's shipping destroyed in the first year of unrestricted submarine war (from January 1, 1917, to December 31, 1917), 6,623,623 tons.

Q.—Did Great Britain's Allies lose heavily?

A.—According to the neutral figures, the losses of neutral tonnage in the first year of unrestricted warfare were 1,335,000 tons. This would leave a destruc-

tion of 1,279,086 tons to be accounted for as being Allied merchant tonnage—French, Italian, Russian, Japanese, Portuguese, Greek, etc. The losses of American tonnage were comparatively slight in proportion, and made only a very small part of this total.

Q.—How many American vessels were sunk?

A.—It was announced in January, 1918, that during the twelvemonth up to January 25, 1918, submarines, raiders and mines had sunk 69 American vessels totaling 176,061 tons. A good number of these were sailing ships. The loss of life was more than 300.

Among the ships sunk were German vessels that had sheltered in American ports while this country was neutral, and which were requisitioned later and put into American service. The *Actaeon,* formerly the *Adamsthurm* and the *Owasco,* formerly the *Allemania,* were thus sunk.

Q.—What shipping did the neutrals lose?

A.—The figures given by the neutral nations were: Norway, 680,000 tons; Sweden, 200,000 tons; Holland, 175,000 tons; Spain, 80,000 tons; other neutrals, 200,000 tons, or a total of 1,335,000 tons.

Q.—What figures did the Germans claim for submarine sinkings?

A.—The Germans, according to statements made by some officials, expected to sink one million tons a month or twelve millions in the year of unrestricted warfare. In November, 1917, the German Admiralty gave out figures that asserted a total destruction in the first nine months of 7,518,000 tons, or almost a million tons more than the British figures give for a whole year. Calculating the remaining three months' sinkings on the basis of the lowest month's German calculations, the German figures would claim a total sinking in the first year of unrestricted warfare of nine and one-half million tons.

Q.—What did Germany claim as the total destruction of merchant tonnage since war began?

A.—An unofficial statement at the end of 1917 asserted that up to that time 18,000,000 tons had been destroyed. This was to the end of November, 1917, and without counting in December. These figures claimed as the total sinkings before unrestricted submarine warfare a tonnage of 4,560,000 gross. This was less than the British Admiralty statement of 1918, which admits a loss of a little more than five million gross tons.

Q.—Had ship construction kept pace with destruction?

A.—It had not. The American Government from the first maintained a consistent attitude, warning the nation that the submarine peril was very real and very acute. The correctness of this American position was proved on March 20, 1918, when it was stated in the British Parliament that submarine destruction amounted to more than six million tons during the first year of unrestricted warfare. The figures that were then given as to construction to meet the loss, were much less optimistic than those that had been issuing. However, it still was claimed that the world had forty-two million tons of shipping left and that seventy-five per cent of the losses was being replaced by new construction.

Q.—What did American figures suggest as to the tonnage shortage?

A.—On March 1, 1918, two weeks before the British Admiralty figures were published, the executive board of the National Patriotic Societies made public figures asserting that the shortage in world tonnage was almost seven and one-half million tons—that is, equal to a shortage of 1,500 five-thousand-ton vessels. It was declared that the total tonnage really available to the United States and the Allies was four and one-half million tons less than it had been in 1914. Attention also was called to the fact that this shortage was aggravated by the demand for at least three million tons to transport and maintain one and one-half million men in the war zone. Sir Eric Geddes said on March 20, 1918, before Parliament that the world shortage was only two and one-half million tons.

Q.—What is the new ship construction of the world?

A.—When the British Admiralty made its secret figures of submarine sinkings public on March 21, 1918, it gave also an estimate of the amount of new construc-

tion by all the nations of the world exclusive of the Central Powers. The figures showed that at the end of 1915 there had been built a little more than two million new tonnage. In 1916 there was built a total tonnage of 1,600,000. The tonnage building in 1917 was a little more than 2,700,000 tons. Altogether, in exact figures, the new tonnage (part of which was only laid down in 1917 and not ready to launch) was 6,606,275 tons. That meant that the submarines were sinking merchant tonnage almost twice as fast as new tonnage was being produced (one and three-quarter times as fast, to be exact). In 1918, however, there came a complete change. Ship destruction was cut down enormously, mostly through adoption of the convoy system, and ship construction increased heavily in Great Britain and became truly great in the United States.

Q.—Did not Norway lose more tonnage than some of the belligerents?

A.—Norway's loss of 680,000 tons caused her a bigger loss in tonnage than that of France, Italy, Russia, Greece or Japan. As, however, Norway was a great merchant-marine nation, her losses comparatively were not so heavy as those of such belligerents as originally had only a limited merchant marine.

Q.—What is Norway's rank in ownership of merchant tonnage?

A.—Norway has a population of only 2,390,000. Her mercantile tonnage as recorded last was 2,770,000—more than one ton per head of population. Germany, with a population of 68 millions, had 4,150,000 tonnage. Great Britain, with 46½ million population, had 19,130,000 tonnage before the war.

Q.—Are the Germans building many merchant ships?

A.—Neutral visitors reported that many merchant ships had been laid down since the war began, and the reports of German shipping companies show that there must have been many new ships on the stocks. The North German Lloyd reported that since 1914 it had taken over ten vessels in course of construction, with an aggregate tonnage of 70,000 tons, and that there still were eight steamers being built, of an aggregate tonnage of 135,000 tons. These include the *Columbus* and the *Hindenburg*, each of 35,000 tons, much larger than the giant *Vaterland*. Of the company's 25,000 employees, some 6,000 were then serving at the front or in the navy.

Q.—What was the effect of war on America so far as ship-movement was concerned?

A.—The records of the Department of Commerce show that for the period beginning February 1, 1917, and ending December 1, 1917, the clearances from American ports were 17,738,000 tons net (about 28,834,000 gross). This total, of course, was produced by many repeated voyages of the same ships.

Q.—In what months of the year can submarines act most energetically?

A.—The figures of tonnage lost by the month will give an indication. A more graphic one is offered by the following table showing numbers of ships lost in each month from February 1, 1917, to February 1, 1918.

British Losses in Ships.

	Number Ships.
February	140
March	93
April	185
May	113
June	110
July	81
August	104
September	73
October	87
November	61
December	70
January (not wholly complete)	52
Total	1,169

Q.—Why was the ship "Frye" sunk?

A.—The *William P. Frye* was an American ship that was captured by the German raider *Prinz Eitel Friedrich*, January 28, 1915, while carrying a cargo of wheat to the British Isles. The raider took off her crew and sank the ship on the ground that the cargo was contraband. The United States Government protested against the sinking, urging that it was in violation of the treaties of 1799 and 1828 with Prussia, and presented a claim for the value of the ship. The German Government acknowledged

its liability under the treaties, but contended that the sinking of the ship was legal if its value in money was paid. An agreement was finally reached, providing that the question whether there had been a violence of international law should be referred for decision to The Hague tribunal.

Q.—Has the submarine campaign failed?

A.—It has failed completely in its avowed purpose of starving out Great Britain and of preventing the transport of troops and munitions and food from the United States.

On September 21, 1918, it was officially announced at Washington that between August, 1914, and September, 1918, the total tonnage of new ships constructed and enemy ships seized left a deficit in world tonnage, as compared with August, 1914, of 3,362,088 tons, and that the future must see even this deficit rapidly made up.

The sinkings in June, 1918, were only a little more than half the average for this period, and new construction passed the losses in the previous month. The United States alone delivered in August 324,189 tons of ships over 2,500 tons; and its 1,020 shipways (more than double those in all the rest of the world) had 386,000 employees working on a total programme of over 16,000,000 tons.

And the most impressive answer to the main question is that:

(1) The food situation in Great Britain was better, not worse.

(2) The United States in its first year of war sent 1,500,000 men, with supplies and equipment to France, with no losses.

Q.—How has Germany deserved execration in the manner of her sinkings?

A.—The U-boat commanders have repeatedly sunk merchant and passenger ships without warning; they have given men, women and children a few minutes to take to boats in rough seas and cold weather far from land; they have torpedoed hospital ships again and again; they have actually fired on the loaded small boats and survivors struggling in the water; in at least one case the crew of a sunken vessel was placed on the deck of the submarine and the U-boat then submerged.

These ruthless violations of international law and of ordinary humanity have continued for four years, clearly under the orders of the authorities.

And the most conspicuous of all, the sinking of the *Lusitania* was commemorated in Germany by the striking off a medal and celebrated by the German people as a great naval victory.

More than any other one act it has been the barbarities of submarine warfare which have aligned the whole world against Germany and her allies.

Q.—What has the civilized world been led to conclude as to German character?

A.—Even those who most admired the former greatness of German music, literature, scholarship and organization have become filled with horror at what seems to be an essential strain of inhuman cruelty in their make-up. Their own great men have noted this: "Goethe and Heine long ago insisted on the savage element in the Prussian."

Here is what a German himself has recently said—Wilhelm Mühlon, formerly a director in Krupp's, intimate with the Kaiser, military leaders, business men, and an earnest student of his nation:

"The Germans . . . are like barbarians, who become intoxicated with victory, even if it has been achieved at the expense of defenseless opponents. With wild hurrahs they are already distributing in their tents the treasures and the men taken as booty. But if a strong courageous enemy, of whose approach in their hour of victory they had had no warning, should surprise them, they would again take hasty flight to their swamps and forests and would be as content with these as they were formerly eager to roam all over the earth, mere vagrants without any understanding world relationships."

Again:

"Generally speaking, one may say of the German soldier that he is normally good-natured and is not disposed to do injury to harmless people, so long as he finds no obstacle put in his prescribed way. But once disturbed, he becomes frightful, because he lacks any higher power of discrimination; because he merely does his military duty and recognizes no such thing as individual conscience; when excited becomes at once blind and supernervous."

And finally:

"If I should ever hear a voice in Germany which speaks of justice, humanity, or non-material progress after the war, or after our victory, then I will comment on the fact with pride and very fully, even if it is the voice of an unknown and unimportant person. I shall call him the first European in Germany."

AMERICAN SHIP SEIZURES

Q.—How many German and Austrian ships did we requisition?

A.—Requisitions in American ports after American declaration of war added 107 vesssls with a tonnage of 686,494 gross tons to the merchant marine under the United States flag.

This leaves out of account such German and Austrian ships as were taken over for naval and army purposes.

Q.—What was the value of these ships?

A.—It was estimated to be more than $100,000,000. This great aggregate value was produced, of course, by the many magnificent liners among the requisitioned ships, and the greatly increased ship-values.

Q.—Did the United States add other ships to the merchant service by requisition?

A.—Through the Shipping Act the United States requisitioned in American shipyards 426 vessels totalling more than 2,000,000 gross tons, which were building for neutrals and for Great Britain, France and other of the Allied nations.

Q.—What was the capacity of the German liners?

A.—Fifteen of the ships were ocean liners ranging from 10,000 to 54,000 tons. These fifteen ships had an aggregate tonnage of 280,000 tons, and a combined carrying capacity of 60,000 troops.

Q.—When did requisitioned German ships carry supplies to the front?

A.—On January 29, 1918, announcement was made that sixteen former German ships had reached France within a period preceding the announcement. Among these was the great *Vaterland*, re-named *Leviathan*. Among the others were: *Covington*, (*Cincinnati*), *America*, (*Amerika*), *President Grant*, *President Lincoln*, *Powhatan*, (*Hamburg*), *Madawaska*, (*Koenig Wilhelm II*), *George Washington*, *Mount Vernon* (*Kronprinzessin Cecilie*), *Agamemnon* (*Kaiser Wilhelm II*), *Aeolus* (*Grosser Kurfürst*), *Mercury* (*Barbarossa*), *Pocahontas* (*Princess Irene*), *Huron* (*Friedrich der Grosse*), *Von Steuben* (*Kronprinz Wilhelm*), *De Kalb* (*Prinz Eitel Friedrich*).

The names in parentheses are the original German names of these ships.

Q.—What other German ships were re-named?

German name.	American name.
Andromeda	*U.S.S. Bath*
Breslau	*U.S.S. Bridgeport*
Frieda Leonhart	*U.S.S. Astoria*
Geier	*U.S.S. Schurz*
Grunewald	*U.S.S. Gen. G. W. Goethals*
Hermes	*U.S.S. Hermes*
Hohenfelde	*U.S.S. Long Beach*
Kiel	*U.S.S. Camden*
Liebenfels	*U.S.S. Houston*
Locksun	*U.S.S Gulfport*
Neckar	*U.S.S. Antigone*
Nicaria	*U.S.S. Pensacola*
Oldenwald	*U. S. S. Newport News*
Praesident	*U.S.S. Kittery*
Rhein	*U.S.S. Susquehanna*
Rudolph Blumberg	*U.S.S. Beaufort*
Saxonia	*U.S.S. Savannah*
Staatssekraetar Solf	*U.S.S. Samoa*
Vogensen	*U.S.S. Quincy*

Q.—Was it possible to repair all the German ships?

A.—It was announced officially that by 1918 every damaged German ship had been fully repaired and was in active use, some having made three or four round trips through the war zone.

Q.—Why did the American Government not prevent damage of these ships?

A.—Before the American declaration of war, the German and Austrian ships were sheltering in American ports under full right, and their masters and crews were in complete charge. The American Government had only such rights over them as every government may exercise over foreign ships in its waters. This right did not extend to interference with any acts of master or crew that did not endanger the security or peace of the United States.

Q.—Were the ships badly damaged?

A.—Some of the damage was very great, indeed—so great as to lead to the fear that repairs would be found immensely difficult. But American engineers and metallurgists attacked the problems on a big scale, and devised hundreds of ingenious methods which accomplished results in a truly marvelous way. Very wonderful feats were accomplished particularly by application of highly modern welding processes, and some of the achievements will take their place in the annals of mechanics. The quickness with which the ships were put into service was one of the first proofs that American war efficiency was very real.

Q.—What German ships were interned in New York?

	Tons.
Adamsturm	5,000
Allemannia	4,630
Armenia	5,464
Barbarossa	10,984
Bohemia	8,414
Clara Menig	1,685
Friedrich der Grosse	10,771
George Washington	25,570
Grosser Kurfürst	13,102
Harburg	4,472
Hamburg	10,531
**Indea*	1,746
Kaiser Wilhelm II	19,361
Koenig Wilhelm II	9,410
Magdeburg	4,497
Maia	2,555
**Matador*	1,468
Pennsylvania	15,333
Pisa	4,967
Portonia	2,778
President Grant	18,072
President Lincoln	18,168
Prinzess Irene	10,893
Prinz Eitel Friedrich	4,650
Prinz Joachim	4,760
Vaterland	54,282
	271,503

Q.—Were many ships interned in other ports?

BOSTON

Kronprinzessin Cecile	19,503
Cincinnati	16,339
Amerika	22,622
Wittekurd	5,640
Willehad	4,761
Kohn	7,409
Ockenfels	5,621
	81,895

NEW ORLEANS

Breslau	7,624
Andromeda	2,554

SAN FRANCISCO

Serapis	4,756

BALTIMORE

Bulgaria	11,440
Neckar	9,835
Rhein	10,058

CHARLESTON, S. C.

Liebenfels	4,525

PORTLAND, OREGON

**Dalbek*	2,725
Kurt	1,731
Arnoldus Vinnen	1,860

SAVANNAH

Hohenfelde	2,974

WILMINGTON, N. C.

Nicaria	3,974
Kiel	4,494

PHILADELPHIA

Rhaetia	6,600
Franconia	4,637
Prinz Oskar	6,026

SEATTLE

Saxonia	4,424
**Steinbek*	2,164

HONOLULU

Prinz Waldemar	3,227
Pommern	6,557
Gouverneur Jaeschke	1,738
Holsatia	5,644
Loong Moon	1,971
Staatssekretar Kraetke	2,009
Letos	4,730
O. J. D. Alhers	7,490
Hermes	1,180

SAN JUAN, P.R.

Odenwald	3,537
Praesident	1,849

TAMPA

Rudolf Blumberg	1,769
Frieda Leonhardt	2,789
Vogensen	3,716

NORFOLK

Appam	7,781
Prinz Eitel Friedrich	8,797
Kronprinz Wilhelm	14,908

* Sailing ships.

Q.—Must belligerents pay for use of enemy ships used during war?

A.—According to international law, payment must be made for the use of all

enemy ships which were in harbor when war was declared or were taken on the high seas before the captain knew that war had broken out. It is even customary to obtain the formal permission of the enemy company owning the ships before making use of them. Such permission is, of course, granted, because the ships would be commandeered whether or no.

The terms of hire are, as a rule, settled by the courts. In the last report of the Nord Deutscher Lloyd Company mention is made of there having been five of its ships in Italian harbors, four in Portuguese, and five in Australian, "which have all been requisitioned, and will be duly paid for." It stated further that two large and three small ships had been lost in government service, and five had been captured on the high seas.

Q.—If the Germans sink requisitioned German ships, who will pay for them in the end?

A.—If this matter were not complicated by public feeling, quarrels over mutual charges of violations of international law, etc., the answer would be very simple. We should have to pay for them. The legal argument is as follows: (1) the German ships sheltered in American ports when the United States was neutral. In so doing they exercised their good right and it was the duty of the neutral to so shelter them. (2) When the United States declared war on Germany, the German merchant shipping in her ports thus occupied the position of being vessels entitled to immunity from prize capture, under the international law that a belligerent may not make prize of enemy merchant vessels that lie in his ports at the time of declaring war. (3) The only right that the United States thus had as against these vessels was to requisition them. This right was exercised. Requisition does not carry ownership with it. Requisition carries with it, on the contrary, responsibility both for safety and for the use of the requisitioned property. Under international law, the owners of the German ships therefore have the right to collect from the United States after the termination of the war. It should be added that there might be found a formidable list of contra charges.

Q.—But is it fair to pay for ships that the enemy sinks?

A.—It would hardly be possible for public opinion in the United States to see anything but crying injustice in any claim by Germany for payment. No doubt this public opinion will play a great part in the final adjustment of the question.

Q.—Are there no legal points to justify non-payment for ships thus sunk?

A.—There are many; but before we enumerate them we must explain that the legal points that justly tell against the German Government do not necessarily tell against the private German owners of the ships; and it is the private German owner who has the claim under international law. However, even this matter may develop an interesting point, viz., that possibly the German Government is part owner in at least some of these vessels, by virtue either of stock ownership or of laws designed to encourage German shipping.

As against the German Government, the United States could maintain that whatever ships were sunk were so sunk illegally. To this the German Government would respond, no doubt, that (1) the German war zone orders were justified as reprisal against Allied violations of laws of blockade; (2) that armed merchant vessels, and merchant vessels armed or unarmed, under convoy were subject to attack without previous visit and search.

Q.—Why did we not seize the German ships in the Danish Islands?

A.—It had been generally assumed that these vessels, like other enemy craft sheltering in American harbors, could be commandeered when the United States declared war against Germany. It has been found, however, that in the deed of sale it was specifically stipulated that the German vessels in the harbors of the Danish West Indies should not be commandeered in the event of the United States going to war with Germany. They remain, therefore, in the harbors of what are now known as the Virgin Islands, and cannot be touched.

Q.—What happened to German ships in the Suez Canal?

A.—There were seven, and as they could not get away they remained in the Canal. Ultimately, the British Government insisted that the directors of the company should instruct them to leave as they were obviously not utilizing the canal for its proper purpose, but were sheltering themselves there in the sanctuary created by the internationalization

of this waterway. As they were not granted right of passage to home ports, and yet had to leave the canal, they have, presumably, passed into British hands.

Q.—What British ships were seized in German ports?

A.—Seventy-four, with a total tonnage of 170,000.

Q.—What German ships were seized in British ports?

A.—One hundred and two, with a tonnage of 200,000. In addition, 88 were captured, aggregating 338,000 tons, and 168 of 283,000 tons, were detained in the ports of France, Belgium and Russia, chiefly at Antwerp.

Q.—Did the Allies seize German ships in Greek harbors?

A.—It was announced that when the Allies occupied the wireless station, telegraph offices, the post-offices, and the Customs at the Piraeus in 1917, a launch from a French cruiser visited the four German East African steamers which had lain in the harbor since the outbreak of war, hoisted the French flag on each ship, and left a detachment of French soldiers on board, after arresting the few Germans found on the vessels. At the same time, the Hamburg-American liner, *Marienbad*, was seized in the Gulf of Salamis, and another ship was taken over in the harbor of Lyra.

Q.—Who purchased the "Dacia"?

A.—This is the ship about which there was so much controversy during 1915. She was a German vessel, and was purchased by an American of German descent named E. M. Breitung. He paid $165,000 for the ship, loaded her with $750,000 worth of cotton, which was to be carried to a German port for $190,000 freight money. At that time cotton was not contraband of war, and it was generally understood that Great Britain recognized as legal the transfer of an enemy ship to a neutral citizen. The matter was solved, however, by the *Dacia* being captured by a French cruiser, as France does not recognize the transfer of an enemy ship to a neutral during war time.

Q.—If a British ship is sunk, will the British Government make good the loss?

A.—It is hardly probable. In any case the loss would not fall on the shipping company, but on the underwriters, and as the government has offered insurance on lower terms than Lloyds, much of the loss has actually been borne by the government already. The Admiralty does not guarantee protection to merchantmen. They put to sea at their own risk.

Q.—How many German ships were in Portuguese and Italian ports?

A.—There were 36 at Lisbon and 8 at St. Vincent, Cape Verde Islands, and 2 at Goa. There were 37 German vessels in Italian ports.

Q.—Have any German ships escaped from neutral ports?

A.—About the middle of February, 1917, the *Bahrenfeld* got away from Buenos Ayres, and the *Turpin* from Punta Arenas, Chili. The *Asuncion* endeavored to escape from Para, but was prevented by Brazilian cruisers. Rumors of other vessels stealing away have been many, but probably most of them are incorrect.

Q.—How many German ships did the Allies capture in the Cameroons?

A.—There appear to have been sixteen steamers lying in Duala harbor when the place was occupied. Eleven of these were Woermann Line steamers. As these are properly prizes of war, some of them have since been sold. The Elder-Dempster Company, which has lost nine steamers at the hands of the enemy, including the *Appam* and the *Falaba*, purchased one of the Woermann liners at a prize sale, and renamed it the *Gold Coast*.

Q.—What was the "Appam" case?

A.—The British merchant ship *Appam* was captured by the German raiding cruiser *Moewe* (Gull) on January 15, 1916. A German prize crew was put aboard, and while the *Moewe* continued her cruise, the *Appam* was brought safely westward and succeeded in passing the British cordon off Chesapeake Bay and anchoring safely in Hampton Roads.

Q.—Did the Germans have the right to bring a prize into American ports?

A.—They did. But the question arose whether they had the right to keep her there, and thus use American ports as an asylum for prize ships. The Germans

claimed that provisions in the United States-Prussian treaties of 1799 and 1828 conferred this special right. The United States claimed that the clauses cited did not permit the entry of a prize unattended by the capturing vessel. This view was upheld by the Supreme Court in a decision handed down March 6, 1917. The result was that the *Appam* finally was turned back to her British owners.

Q.—Have the Germans respected international law on sea or land?

A.—No. Every violation, the invasion of Belgium, the sinking of the *Lusitania*, the deliberate policy of "frightfulness," the bombing of hospitals, the use of ambassadors for treacherous acts against neutrals, and scores of others—has been declared due to "military necessity." They have made it clear in a thousand ways that any law, human or divine, which stood in the way of their achieving victory must go by the board.

THE WORLD'S SHIPS OF PEACE

Q.—How did our Atlantic merchant fleet begin to grow?

A.—In July, 1917, some ships in the Pacific were transferred to the Atlantic. In August, 1917, the Shipping Board asked Congress for another appropriation of $915,000,000 for its building program. This amount would be used for purchase and commandeering of materials and plants and for ship construction. Legislation was asked to permit ships of foreign register to engage in coastwise trade.

On August 24, 1917, nearly 3,000,000 tons of shipping was ready to be contracted for, and 1,281,000 more under negotiation at a total estimated cost including cost of commandeering and the purchase of available vessels of $915,000,000; of this fully two-thirds are for the Atlantic fleet. June 15, 1917, all power-driven cargo-carrying and passenger vessels above 2,500 tons deadweight capacity under construction in any yard, and materials, equipment and outfit thereto, were requisitioned by the United States.

Q.—How much shipping did this give us?

A.—On September 26, 1917, the United States had 458 ships of over 1,500 deadweight tons with an aggregate tonnage of 2,871,359. There were also 117 ships of German and Austrian origin, totaling 700,285 tons. Four hundred ships of 2,500,000 tons had been commandeered and 636 ships with 3,124,700 tons were contracted for by the U. S. Emergency Fleet Corporation. It was at this date expected that the United States would have near the end of 1918 a merchant fleet of more than 1,600 ships, aggregating 9,200,000 tons, as compared with an overseas marine of 1,614,222 tons on June 30, 1914.

Q.—How did we get Great Lakes ships to the Atlantic?

A.—By the astonishing process of cutting the ships in half and towing the pieces through to the St. Lawrence river, and then patching the ships together again. In the last part of 1917, the United States Government commandeered about 20 ships from the coastwise trade and then went to work to replace them with steamers from the Great Lakes fleet. The latter were from 275 to 300 feet long, whereas the locks of the canals would not accommodate vessels of more than 250 feet. The big iron ships were cut in two and the halves were brought through the locks separately, to be spliced together again in the St. Lawrence River. Most of the ships were brought together again and made whole in the water without dry-docking. Divers bolted the halves together and the sides were securely united by heavy steel tie-plates.

Q.—How much money has been invested in American shipping?

A.—Since the war began a total of $401,749,000 has been invested in ship firms in this country. For January, 1918, alone the amount was $21,274,000. There were nineteen new ship firms incorporated in January. Of the $21,274,000 invested, $6,650,000 was designated for shipbuilding and $14,624,000 for other shipping projects. The development over the entire war-period is shown in the following table compiled for *The Journal of Commerce*, which sets forth the authorized capital of new concerns:

Five months, 1914	$1,844,000
Year 1915	37,662,000
Year 1916	69,466,000
Year 1917	271,503,000

Q.—How many shipyards have we?

A.—Six years ago the United States had barely seven shipyards. To-day these seven yards and 132 others are working night and day, two and three shifts at a time, turning out vessels for the Emergency Shipping Board. The shipyards are scattered throughout the United States from Fore River, Boston and Newark Bay, Delaware, New York, Philadelphia, Newport News, clear around Mobile on the south, to Seattle and Tacoma on the west.

Q.—What is meant by a "standardized" ship?

A.—It is a ship the parts of which can be manufactured in multiples of tens and hundreds of thousands, then assembled in a shipbuilding plant. In Great Britain, standardizing of ships has been in vogue

for a quarter of a century, decreasing the cost of ships 50 per cent. Under this plan, one shipyard may limit itself to only one size and type of ship. The parts, all alike, can be manufactured in many different factories in any desired quantity—plates in one, boilers in another, engines in another, rivets in another. The shipyard thus would be the assembling plant merely. The benefits gained from standardizing are decreased cost and increased speed.

Q.—What were the chief difficulties in the way of the immense program?

A.—It might be accurate to say that a number of difficulties were so great as well to make them all "chief" in rank. The supply of man-labor was a vast problem. The production of enough material was another. The transportation of this material was still another. Each of these great problems was independent of the rest, yet not one of the problems could be solved satisfactorily without solving the others simultaneously. Other difficulties, minor in comparison, but actually enormous in specific aspect were: (1) erecting shipyards, (2) providing housing and food supply for labor, (3) financing the vast expenditures, (4) fuel, (5) adjusting all these imperative needs to the equally imperative needs of other industries, and to the absolutely imperative needs of the army and navy.

Q.—What was the "Great Shipyard Drive"?

A.—On January 28, 1918, the United States government employment service began a nation-wide campaign to enlist workers for the shipyards. State directors of the Public Service Reserve conducted the drive in the various states.

Q.—Have we a training ship for the merchant marine?

A.—Yes. The first training ship of the United States Merchant Marine, the *Calvin Austin*, brought its first graduates to New York in March, 1918, and the men were placed in their first positions. The *Calvin Austin* is stationed regularly at Boston, where the Recruiting Service of the Shipping Board has its headquarters.

Q.—Is it true that ships can be built of concrete?

A.—Yes. The Shipping Board gave contracts in February, 1918, for ten such craft to be constructed by the Ferro Concrete Shipbuilding Corporation of Redondo Beach, Cal. The vessels were to be of 3,500 tons. In March, 1918, the first large concrete ship was launched on the Pacific coast. The craft was 5,000 tons and named *Faith*.

Q.—When was the concrete ship invented?

A.—The first craft made of reinforced concrete was a small one, built by a Frenchman in 1849. Before 1900 some barges of about 100 tons were in use in Italy and Holland. In 1900 a large 200-ton barge for river traffic was built in Germany, and by 1918 concrete barges varying in capacity up to 700 tons were being used in the Panama Canal, the Welland Ship Canal, the Manchester Ship Canal in England, and in the harbors of San Francisco, Baltimore, and Sydney, New South Wales.

Q.—Who built the first big concrete vessel?

A.—Norway. A 400-ton ship was launched in 1917, and it has been announced that regular ocean-going cargo vessels are to follow. They are to be as big as 5,000 tons, though those now being designed or constructed appear to be from 3,000 to 4,000 tons. Instead of using steam, they will be propelled by gigantic Diesel oil-motors.

Q.—What was the result of negotiations with the Swedish Government over shipping?

A.—Late in January, 1918, preliminary agreement was made with Sweden through conferences in London, providing for the charter of Swedish ships to the United States, to be used principally for South American trade. It was announced that some of the Swedish vessels which had been held in American waters would be allowed to sail with their cargoes.

Q.—How many ships of 10,000 tons are there in the world?

A.—A good number have been sunk during the war, and a few may have been launched. In 1914 there were 130 British ships of this size afloat, and some 15 launched or building. There were 40 German afloat, and half a dozen building or just launched. The United States had

9, France 15, Holland 7, Japan 4, and Belgium 5. Altogether, afloat, launched and building, there were about 250.

Q.—What is the increased capacity of British ships owing to sanctioning of deck loads?

A.—Some shipping experts assert that by deck loading, and the permission given to load ships down to the "Indian Summer" Plimsoll mark, no less than 500,000 tons was in effect added to the British mercantile marine.

Q.—What is the Plimsoll mark?

A.—It is a government mark painted on the sides of British ships to denote the maximum depth to which they may be sunk by loading. There is a "summer mark" and a "winter mark," the loads permitted for summer being greater because the better weather permits less free board. The name "Plimsoll" comes from the name of the member of Parliament who worked for the law.

Q.—When a ship is said to be 5,000 tons, does that mean its cargo capacity is 5,000 tons?

A.—That is generally assumed, and, on that assumption, various very wild calculations have been made and are made by laymen. As a matter of fact a ship's "tonnage" is really its displacement, that is to say, the weight of the water it displaces when afloat. This measurement is used for all warships, which always carry their full load. A different method of measurement is generally employed in calculating the tonnage of a merchant ship, and as a rule a warship of exactly the same size as a merchant ship will be registered at a considerably higher tonnage. Roughly, but quite roughly, the cargo capacity of a boat is just about double its registered tonnage. That is, a steamship of 5,000 tons register would have a cargo capacity of about 10,000 tons. This is a case where a quart can apparently be put into a pint pot!

Q.—Is the draught of the largest merchant ships greater than that of dreadnaughts?

A.—The biggest merchant ships are a great deal larger than the most powerful dreadnaughts, and have a considerably deeper draught. The following table comparing pre-war battleships and merchantmen, gives the information up to the war:—

	Tonnage.	Length. Feet.	Breadth. Feet.	Draught. Feet.	Horse-power.	Speed. Knots.
Dreadnaught battleship—	22,500	545	88½	27.5	27,000	23
Battle-cruiser—	26,350	660	86½	27.5	70,000	34.7
Titanic—	46,000	882	92½	34.6	47,000	20
Britannic—	54,000	924	94	35	60,000	23
Imperator—	50,000	905	98	35	60,000	22

Q.—Are French shipyards making good shipping losses?

A.—Apparently nothing very definite has been done. The shipbuilders and shipowners complain that the Government has, as yet, taken no measures to enable the shipyards to secure the necessary raw materials, and the Committee of Shipowners has decided unanimously "once again to call attention to the danger that threatens the French merchant marine of disappearing, if the shipyards are not in a position to construct vessels with the shortest possible delay." The Italian Government appears to be fully alive to the need of adding to its merchant marine, and voted a sum of 165,000,000 lire ($30,000,000) for the construction of merchant vessels during 1917.

Q.—Are many foreign sailors in the British mercantile marine?

A.—The figures for 1913 were as follows:—

British	212,570
Lascars and Asiatics.....	46,848
Foreigners	32,639

Of these 70,622 were engaged exclusively in home trade, 25,000 being on fishing vessels; 10,244 were in vessels engaged partly in home and partly in oversea trade.

We may assume that practically all these 70,000 were British, which would leave 142,000 British for foreign trade, and 79,000 Lascars and foreigners. It appears, therefore, that the proportion in the British oversea mercantile marine is not quite two British seamen to one foreigner.

Q.—Was the "Lusitania" the famous Atlantic "greyhound"?

A.—Yes. This was the first great British ship built for the American trade, which was fitted with turbine engines. She and her sister ship, the *Mauretania*, won the blue ribbon of the Atlantic from the Germans, who had held it for some years. The *Lucania*, with the *Campania*, held it before the Germans captured it, with the *Deutschland*, in 1900. The *Lusitania* was built in 1907, and displaced 31,550 tons. The *Britannic*, sunk in the war, had a tonnage of 54,000.

Q.—Did British Colonies limit German ships trading to their ports?

A.—There was no limitation at all. The more ships came into Dominion ports the better pleased the Dominions were. The German ships carried much cargo not only between German ports and the Dominions and Colonies, but also between Great Britain and the outlying parts of the empire.

German vessels running along the east coast of Africa took much of the produce of British East Africa to England.

Much of the West Indian trade between British West Indian ports and American ports was in German ships, notably the trade between New York and Jamaica.

Q.—How is foreign shipping subsidized?

A.—Mostly in the form of guaranteed payment for carrying mails. In some cases certain lines (mostly passenger-carrying) are subsidized by lump payments outright for touching at certain ports or performing similar service. The general form of subsidy, however, is that of payment per mile for carrying mails. It is granted usually under conditions prescribing the speed, type and general character of the ship. The matter of ship subsidies has been a vexed problem for generations. In one form or another governments of maritime nations have always striven to encourage a merchant marine under their own flag and this encouragement has almost always taken the form of grants of money in some manner. It is obvious that the whole subject has an international aspect since an unsubsidized merchant marine of one country is handicapped against subsidized marines of other countries. Subsidies have vehement supporters and equally vehement enemies in every country that grants them. There has been an enormous output of contentious literature but it remains one of the open subjects of the world. The following tables show some foreign subsidies paid before the war, as computed by a British editor.

SUBSIDIES PAID TO FOREIGN STEAMSHIP COMPANIES

Eastern Service.

	Voyages per Year.	Total No. of Miles Run per Year.	Subsidy.	Amount of Subsidy. per Mile.
Norddeutscher Lloyd	26	675,246	£171,000	5s. 0½d.
P. and O. Line	26	731,120	164,500	4s. 5¾d.
Messageries Maritimes	26	528,372	228,950	8s. 7¾d.
Gesellschaft Nederland	26	494,000	26,500	1s. 0¾d.
Rotterdamsche Lloyd	26	468,000	26,500	1s. 1½d.
Oesterreichischer Lloyd	12	235,715	34,600	2s.10½d.
Societa Marthina ..... (Genoa-Bombay)	13	117,499	68,400	11s. 7½d.
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	26	639,808	316,900	9s.10¾d

Australian Service.

	Voyages per Year.	Total No. of Miles Run per Year.	Subsidy.	Amount of Subsidy. per Mile.
Norddeutscher Lloyd	13	342,420	£95,000	5s. 6½d.
P. and O. Line	26	652,860	146,500	4s. 5¾d.
Orient Line	26	692,640	173,400	5s. .
Messageries Maritimes	13	315,198	48,760	3s. 1d.

Q.—How fast is our merchant marine growing?

A.—On August 22, 1918, we had 535 steel and wooden ships with a deadweight tonnage of 2,923,973. In the preceding week the total deadweight tonnage had been 2,840,423 tons. Thus there was a record of 83,550 new tonnage in one week. This includes all vessels, seagoing and non-seagoing.

Q.—What had we built during the first year of war?

A.—The Department of Commerce, Bureau of Navigation, issued the following statement of American merchant shipbuilding for the year ended June 30, 1918:

"Merchant vessels built in the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, as officially returned to the Commerce Department, Bureau of Navigation, numbered 1,622, of 1,430,793 gross tons. The output of the preceding four months, 706,084 gross tons, almost equaled that of the preceding eight months, and was greater than any previous annual output in our history. The year's output was more than double the largest output of German shipyards in peace times. The output of the United Kingdom for the 12 months ended June 30 has not been stated, but for the 12 months ended May 31 it was 1,406,838 gross tons, or about 70 per cent of the annual output of peace times."

Q.—Were all these ocean-going ships?

A.—Of the year's American output, 253 of 1,034,604 gross tons were seagoing steel steamers, 157 of 213,088 gross tons seagoing wooden vessels, and the others were vessels for the lakes, rivers, and domestic transportation. One concrete seagoing steamer of 3,427 gross tons was included.

Q.—How many had our government yards produced?

A.—The year's output up to June 30, 1918, was almost exclusively from established private shipyards. The great shipbuilding plants like Hog Island, established through Government co-operation, had not begun to add finished ships to the cargo fleets. By September, however, there had been a marvellous production that threw these figures into the shade. On September 3, 1918, it was announced that we had completed in the year 277 seagoing vessels totalling 1,710,121 deadweight tons.

Q.—How did our old and new records compare?

A.—From July 1 to December 31, 1916, we built 78 seagoing steel and wood ships of 206,203 tons (mostly for foreign owners). From January 1 to June 30, 1917, we built 61 steel seagoing ships of 288,061 gross tons, 55 wood seagoing ships of 105,687 tons, a total of 393,748 gross tons. Adding 778 non-seagoing ships, we built in that time 491,983 gross tons. From June 30 to December 31, 1917, we built 81 steel seagoing ships of 317,677 tons, 82 wood seagoing ships of 106,143 tons, 642 non-seagoing ships of 118,493 tons, making a total for the last 6 months of 1917 of 805 ships of 542,313 gross tonnage.

Q.—How fast did we build after we got started?

A.—The following table shows what ships were built and officially numbered in the United States in the first six months of 1918. It does not include ships that had been launched but not completed or registered.

	Seagoing						Non-seagoing		Grand Total	
	Steel		Wood		Total					
	No. of Ships	Gross Tons	No. of Ships	Gross Tons	No. of Ships	Gross Tons	No. of Ships	Gross Tons	No. of Ships	Gross Tons
January ..	12	53,748	6	6,468	18	60,216	39	4,579	57	64,795
February .	17	94,242	14	17,874	31	112,116	53	5,485	84	117,601
March ...	29	115,040	12	20,776	41	135,816	97	11,329	138	147,145
April	31	130,637	15	21,017	46	151,654	119	11,396	165	163,050
May	40	157,598	13	16,453	53	174,051	132	20,413	185	194,464
June	43	165,662	15	24,357	58	190,019	130	11,406	188	201,425
Total ..	172	716,927	75	106,945	247	823,872	570	64,608	817	888,480

EUROPEAN TRADE ARTERIES

Q.—Is the Danube the longest river in Europe?

A.—No. The longest is the Volga (2,000 miles), a river entirely in Russian territory. Authorities differ as to its exact length. Strelbitsky, the greatest authority on European rivers, puts it at 1,977 miles, but General von Tillo, another expert, says it is 2,107 miles long. It drains a huge area, no less than 560,000 square miles, and the most fertile part of Russia is in this basin, which supports no less than 40,000,000 people. It empties into the Caspian Sea, but, by means of canals linking up with other rivers, it is actually connected with the Baltic.

Q.—How long is the Danube?

A.—The Danube is 1,644 miles long, but has a basin of only 315,000 square miles. It is, however, a far more notable stream than the Volga, has a much greater discharge of water, and has an international importance greater than any other river in the world.

Q.—What are the next longest European rivers?

A.—The river next in size is the Ural, 1,446 miles; then the Dnieper, 1,164 miles, in whose basin dwell 28,000,000 people; then the Kama, 1,115 miles; then the Don, 1,110 miles; and then the Pechora, 1,024 miles. All these are Russian rivers, so, too, are the Oka, 914 miles, and the Dniester, 835 miles.

After them comes the Rhine, which is only 709 miles long, but the position of which makes it second only in importance to the Danube among European streams.

Q.—Is the Danube navigable for heavy tonnage?

A.—The central channel, called the Sulina, is the one now used through the Delta. From its mouth to Braila the Danube is navigable for sea-going ships up to 4,000 tons register. From Braila almost to the Iron Gates sea-going ships of 600 tons can use the river, and barges of some 2,000 tons capacity navigate it. From the Iron Gates to Vienna barges drawing five feet of water are used. From Vienna to Regensberg it is possible for barges of 600 tons register to be towed up against the rapid stream. A canal connects the Danube with the Mainz, which flows into the Rhine at Mainz. It is said that the Germans are already engaged on a scheme for joining the Rhine and the Danube by a deep canal, which will permit the passage of very large barges, and thus link the Black and the North Seas.

Q.—How wide and how deep is the Rhine?

A.—At the Swiss frontier it is only 189 yards wide. At Mannheim it is 429, at Mayence 402, at Coblenz 399, at Bonn 532, at Cologne 433, at Dusseldorf 409, and at the Dutch frontier 909. From Mayence to Dusseldorf it varies from 9 to 76 feet in depth. Above Mayence it is never deeper than 25 feet, and it shoals to as little as three feet in places.

Q.—What is the Rhine Navigation Treaty?

A.—It is a convention which gives to Germany the right of conveying shipments through the Netherlands by way of the Rhine without let or hindrance. The Dutch authorities are not permitted to examine the cargo at all, their privileges being limited to an examination of the ship's papers.

Q.—Is the Scheldt a Dutch or a Belgian river?

A.—It is a Dutch river. The Scheldt enters Holland eleven miles after it leaves Antwerp, and runs for fifty miles through Dutch territory to the sea. It is, therefore, in Dutch territorial waters, and, although it is a trade-free river, its neutrality must be respected.

Q.—What is a trade-free river?

A.—A river on which no tolls are charged, and which is entirely free to the shipping of the world. Up to 1863 Holland had the right to, and did, levy a toll of 3 shillings (about 75 cents) a ton on all ships using the Scheldt to reach Antwerp. This absolutely throttled the port of Antwerp, and, after many attempts, a conference of twenty-one Powers and States held at Brussels, was successful in arranging a treaty freeing the Scheldt. Belgium and the other interested Powers bought the toll right from Holland for about $7,200,000, of which sum Belgium paid about $2,400,000. Since

then Antwerp has gone ahead by leaps and bounds. With its suburbs it had a population of about 360,000 before the war. Of these, 16,000 were Dutch, and 10,000 Germans.

Q.—How long is the Kiel Canal?

A.—Sixty-one miles, a few miles longer than that of Panama. The Suez Canal is almost 100 miles long, and cost about $125,000,000 to build. The Panama Canal, fifty miles long, cost $372,000,000.

Q.—What was the cost of the Kiel Canal?

A.—The proper name of the canal is the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal. Its original cost was $39,000,000. The reconstruction cost $55,000,000. It was 29½ feet deep, but has been deepened and widened, so that it can take the greatest dreadnaught afloat. The sluices at the Baltic end are 1,072 feet long, and 145 feet wide, and are the largest in the world.

Q.—Who owns the Suez Canal?

A.—The shareholders of the Egyptian Company, which was formed by M. de Lesseps to build it. The original capital was £8,000,000 in 400,000 shares of £20 each. France originally took 200,000 of these, the Ottoman Empire took 96,000. Of the remaining shares the Viceroy of Egypt obtained 85,506. England, Austria, Russia and the United States would have nothing whatever to do with the projected canal, the cutting of which was strongly objected to by the British Government. Lord Palmerston told de Lesseps, when he went to London to raise money, that, in the opinion of British experts, the making of a canal between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea was a physical impossibility, the levels of the two seas not being the same. However, in 1875, when the Khedive of Egypt, being hard pressed for money, tried to sell the shares he held—those of the former Viceroy and those taken up by the Turkish Government—to a French syndicate, the British Government stepped in, and purchased the lot, 176,602 shares in all, for £3,976,582. This was about their face value at the time. Those shares are now worth £30,000,000!

Q.—Who was responsible for this purchase?

A.—Lord Beaconsfield generally gets the credit for this coup, which gave Great Britain virtual control of the canal.

Q.—How do the railways of Europe compare?

A.—According to the latest pre-war figures, Germany had 39,000 miles of railway; France, 31,000; United Kingdom, 23,420; Russia, 46,000; and Italy, 11,000. Since 1880 the total receipts of the German railways have gone up nearly four times, and the ton mileage more than four times. In that same time the British receipts and ton mileage have just about doubled.

Q.—Is the telegraph used as much on the Continent of Europe as in England?

A.—Much more than in England. Germany has 142,000 miles of telegraph line; France has 114,000, the United Kingdom 61,000. There are 50,000 postoffices in Germany, 14,000 in France, and 24,000 in the United Kingdom. There are 72 letters per head written in Great Britain and only 49 per head in Germany. In France there are 40, in Russia 10, and in Italy 11 per head.

Q.—What is the line of the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad?

A.—It starts really at the Elbe North Sea port of Hamburg, running down Elbe valley to Berlin. Thence it goes southward through Prussian Brandenburg, largely continuing along the Elbe valley. Still directed southward, it crosses Saxony, touching the Saxon city, Dresden, and then pierces the Erz Gebirge (Ore Mountains), descending into Bohemia, and passing through the Bohemian city of Prague.

Thence it goes southeasterly to Vienna. From Vienna it follows the Danube valley to Budapest and, passing along the northern side of the Danube, in Hungarian territory, it goes to the Serbian capital Belgrade.

Continuing southeasterly, it crosses Serbia and reaches the Bulgarian capital Sofia. Traversing southern Bulgaria, it reaches Turkish Adrianople and then Constantinople. From Haidar-Pasha on the Bosporus, opposite Constantinople, it extends through Asiatic Turkey into Mesopotamia, touching Mosul, and so to Bagdad.

Q.—When was the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad begun?

A.—It was begun about 1900 when a German company obtained concessions

from the Sultan for the line from Constantinople to Bagdad. The intention was ultimately to extend from Bagdad to the Persian Gulf.

The magnitude of the scheme naturally led to lively suspicions of schemes of aggrandizement and military menace.

Q.—Does it tap rich country?

A.—It taps thousands of miles of neglected country with big possibilities, but, to bring these possibilities into being, vast projects of reclamation, irrigation, colonization by agricultural laborers, etc., are necessary. Many of these projects had been begun when war occurred.

Q.—How many miles is it from Berlin to Bagdad?

A.—In direct air-line it is 2,000 miles. By rail, when the missing link in the Bagdad railway is completed, it will be about 2,650 miles. The Germans had among other plans the idea of building a great bridge across the Hellespont, and, if that were done, it would be possible to travel in one of the carriages of the *Compagnie Internationale des Wagon Lits* from Calais in France, on the English Channel, to Koweit, on the Persian Gulf, a distance of some 3,000 miles, without a change, as the Bagdad railway is of standard gauge.

Q.—Has the Bagdad railway really been completed?

A.—Various statements have been made about it. It is known definitely that the connecting link through the Taurus Mountains was completed in 1914, and at that time the section from Aleppo to Ras-el-ain—86 miles—was finished. When the war broke out, or shortly afterward, the rails had been laid from Bagdad to Samarra, 88 miles. It is probable that the link between Ras-el-ain and Mosul (200 miles) has also been finished, but it is improbable that the line from Mosul to Samarra, a distance of 160 miles, has been laid.

Q.—Does a direct railroad line connect Odessa with Bucharest?

A.—No. A railway runs from Odessa to Bender, where the Dniester is crossed; from there it runs south to Reni, on the Danube, from which place a boat is taken to Galatz, a distance of some eight miles. The railway to Bucharest from that port runs through Braila, Buzen, and Ploesci. Another route can be taken, but it is a long way round, through Kishinef—the capital of Bessarabia—to Jassy, crossing the frontier to Ungheni, where the break of gauge necessitates changing trains. From the present capital of Roumania, either of the north-south railways can be taken to Bucharest.

Q.—Have all railways in Europe the same gauge?

A.—All have the standard 4-ft. 8½-in. gauge except Russia, where the gauge is 5 ft. In Argentine they have the largest gauge in the world—viz., 5 ft. 6 in. This is due to the fact that the Argentines purchased the railways and rolling stock which were laid down by the British and French during the Crimean War The gauge used was 5 ft. 6 in.

Q.—Is the Euphrates a navigable river?

A.—Not for commercial purposes. Sailing craft manage to traverse it from the Persian Gulf to Hit, due west of Bagdad, but beyond that town even they cannot go. Hit is about 500 miles from Kurna, where the Tigris and Euphrates meet and flow to the Persian Gulf in one stream, known as the Shat-el-Arab. The Euphrates rises near Erzerum, and is about 1,800 miles long. When the snows melt in the Armenian mountains in March and April, the river overflows its banks, but, otherwise, it is a sluggish stream. In November, when the water is low, rocks, dams, and shallows make navigation exceedingly difficult.

PRINCE LICHNOWSKY'S REVELATIONS

Q.—What were the Lichnowsky revelations?

A.—Prince Karl Lichnowsky, German Ambassador at London when war began, wrote a diary or "memorandum," which by means not disclosed reached the German Minority Socialists and also the Stockholm *Politiken*, organ of the extreme wing of the Swedish Socialists. *Vorwaerts*, *Politiken* and *Muenchener Neueste Nachrichten* published parts of it early in 1918. Von Jagow (Foreign Minister when war began) made a labored reply in the Reichstag.

Q.—What was the burden of Lichnowsky's charges?

A.—He declared that during his term as Ambassador (from 1912 to 1914) England, through Sir Edward Grey, had been sincerely desirous of friendly relations with Germany. In regard to the war specifically, he charged: "1. We encouraged Count Berchtold to attack Serbia, although no German interest was involved, and the danger of a world-war must have been known to us—whether we knew the text of the ultimatum is a question of complete indifference.

"2. In the days between July 23 and July 30, 1914, when M. Sazonoff emphatically declared that Russia could not tolerate an attack upon Serbia, we rejected the British proposals of mediation, although Serbia, under Russian and British pressure, had accepted almost the whole ultimatum, and although an agreement about the two points in question could easily have been reached, and Count Berchtold was even ready to satisfy himself with the Serbian reply.

"3. On July 30th, when Count Berchtold wanted to give way, we, without Austria having been attacked, replied to Russia's mere mobilization by sending an ultimatum to Petersburg, and on July 31st we declared war on the Russians, although the Czar had pledged his word that as long as negotiations continued not a man should march—so that we deliberately destroyed the possibility of a peaceful settlement.

"In view of these indisputable facts, it is not surprising that the whole civilized world outside Germany attributes to us the sole guilt for the world-war."

Q.—Did he give proofs of England's good will?

A.—He referred throughout to the general spirit in which he was met. Specifically, he gave particularly full details of practically concluded agreements over spheres of influence in the Portuguese African colonies and the Bagdad railroad.

Q.—Did Lichnowsky say Germany supported the attack on Serbia?

A.—In a part of the memorandum printed in *Vorwaerts*, he wrote that he received instructions to "induce the English press to take up a friendly attitude if Austria gave the 'death blow' to the great Serbian movement, and so far as possible to prevent public opinion from opposing Austria. Recollections of the attitude of England during the annexation crisis, when public opinion showed sympathy for the Serbian rights in Bosnia,—these and other things spoke so strongly against the probability of support being given to the projected punitive expedition against the murderers that I considered it necessary to give an urgent warning. But I also gave a warning against the whole project, which I described as adventurous and dangerous.

"Herr von Jagow answered me that Russia was not ready; there would doubtless be a certain amount of bluster, but the more firmly we stood by Austria the more would Russia draw back. He said that Austria was already accusing us of want of spirit, and that we should not squeeze her. On the other hand, feeling in Russia was becoming even more anti-German, and so we must simply risk it."

Q.—What did Lichnowsky say about England's attitude on Serbia?

A.—He said: "Sir Edward Grey went through the Serbian reply with me, and pointed to the conciliatory attitude of the Government at Belgrade. We then discussed his mediation proposal, which was to arrange an interpretation of the two points acceptable to both parties. M. Cambon (French Ambassador in Lon-

don), the Marquis Imperiali (Italian Ambassador in London), and I should have met under Sir Edward Grey's presidency, and it would have been easy to find an acceptable form for the disputed points, which in the main concerned the participation of Austrian officials in the investigation at Belgrade. Given goodwill, everything could have been settled in one or two sittings, and the mere acceptance of the British proposal would have relieved the tension and would have further improved our relations to England. I urgently recommended the proposal, saying that otherwise world-war was imminent, in which we had everything to lose and nothing to gain. In vain! I was told that it was against the dignity of Austria, and that we did not want to interfere in the Serbian business, but left it to our ally. I was told to work for 'localization of the conflict.'"

Q.—What happened after the German ultimatum?

A.—After Germany answered Russian mobilization with an ultimatum and then a declaration of war, Sir Edward Grey, says Lichnowsky, "still looked for new ways of escape. In the morning of August 1st Sir W. Tyrrell came to me to say that his chief still hoped to find a way out. Should we remain neutral if France did the same? I understood him to mean that we should then be ready to spare France, but his meaning was that we should remain absolutely neutral—neutral therefore even towards Russia. That was the well-known misunderstanding. Sir Edward had given me an appointment for the afternoon, but as he was then at a meeting of the Cabinet, he called me up on the telephone, after Sir W. Tyrrell had hurried straight to him. But in the afternoon he spoke no longer of anything but Belgian neutrality, and of the possibility that we and France should face one another armed, without attacking one another.

"Thus there was no proposal whatever, but a question without any obligation, because our conversation, as I have already explained, was to take place soon afterward. In Berlin, however (without waiting for the conversation), this news was used as the foundation for a far-reaching act."

Q.—Did Grey continue to seek peace?

A.—Lichnowsky writes that after the refusal of conference and mediation, Sir Edward Grey asked Germany to come forward with a proposal. He says: "We insisted upon war. I could get no other answer than that it was an enormous 'concession' on the part of Austria to contemplate no annexation of territory. Thereupon Sir Edward justly pointed out that even without annexations of territory a country can be humiliated and subjected, and that Russia would regard this as a humiliation which she would not stand. The impression became ever stronger that we desired war in all circumstances. Otherwise our attitude in a question which, after all, did not directly concern us was unintelligible. The urgent appeals and definite declarations of M. Sazonoff (Russian Foreign Minister), later on the positively humble telegrams of the Czar, the repeated proposals of Sir Edward, the warnings of San Giuliano (Italian Foreign Minister), and of Bollati (Italian Ambassador in Berlin), my urgent advice—it was all of no use, for Berlin went on insisting that Serbia must be massacred.

"The more I pressed, the less willing they were to alter their course, if only because I was not to have the success of saving peace in the company of Sir Edward Grey.

"So Grey on July 29th resolved upon his well-known warning. I replied that I had always reported that we should have to reckon upon English hostility if it came to war with France. The Minister said to me repeatedly: 'If war breaks out it will be the greatest catastrophe the world has ever seen.'"

Q.—What was the proposed African agreement?

A.—According to this part of the memorandum, which was published in the *Muenchener Neueste Nachrichten*, it amended a treaty between Great Britain and Germany which divided the Portuguese colonies of Africa into spheres of interest. Lichnowsky's statement is:

"The object of the negotiations between us and England, which had begun before my arrival, was to alter and amend our treaty of 1898. Thanks to the conciliatory attitude of the British Government, I succeeded in giving to the new treaty a form which entirely accorded with our wishes and interests. All Angola, as far as the 20th degree of longitude, was allotted to us, so that we reached the Congo territory from the south. Moreover, the valuable islands of San Thomé and Principe, which lie north of the equator, and therefore really belonged to the French sphere of interest, were allotted to us—a fact which caused my

French colleague to make lively, although vain, representations. Further, we obtained the northern part of Mozambique; the frontier was formed by the Likungo. The British Government showed the utmost readiness to meet our interests and wishes. Sir Edward Grey intended to prove his good will to us, but he also desired to promote our colonial development, because England hoped to divert Germany's development of strength from the North Sea and Western Europe to the world-sea and Africa. 'We don't want to grudge Germany her colonial development,' a Cabinet member said to me.

"Originally, at the British suggestion, the Congo State was to be included in the treaty, which would have given us a right of pre-emption and a possibility of economic penetration in the Congo State. But we refused this offer, out of alleged respect for Belgian sensibilities! Perhaps the idea was to economize our successes? With regard also to the practical realization of the real but unexpressed object of the treaty—the actual partition at a later date of the Portuguese colonial possessions—the new formulation showed considerable advantages and progress as compared with the old. Thus the treaty contemplated circumstances which would enable us to enter the territory ascribed to us, for the protection of our interests. These conditional clauses were so wide that it was really left to us to decide when really 'vital' interests were concerned, so that, in view of the complete dependence of Portugal on England, we merely needed to go on cultivating our relations with England in order, later on, with English assent, to realize our mutual intentions."

Q.—What was the contemplated Bagdad railroad treaty?

A.—The Lichnowsky memorandum, as published in the Stockholm *Politiken*, was: "It aimed, in fact, at the division of Asia Minor into spheres of interest, though this expression was carefully avoided in consideration of the Sultan's rights. Sir Edward Grey declared repeatedly that there was no agreement between England and France aiming at a division of Asia Minor. In the presence of the Turkish representative, Hakki Pasha, all economic questions in connection with the German treaty were settled mainly in accordance with the wishes of the Ottoman Bank. The greatest concession Sir Edward Grey made me personally was the continuation of the line to Basra. Hitherto Bagdad had been the terminus of the line. The shipping on the Shat-el-Arab was to be in the hands of an international commission. We obtained a share in the harbor works at Basra, and even shipping rights on the Tigris, hitherto the monopoly of the firm of Lynch."

Q.—Would this have given Germany what she wanted?

A.—Yes. As the memorandum says: "By this treaty the whole of Mesopotamia up to Basra became our zone of interest, whereby the whole British rights, the question of shipping on the Tigris, and the Wilcox establishments were left untouched, as well as all the district of Bagdad and the Anatolian railways.

"The British economic territories included the coasts of the Persian Gulf and the Smyrna-Aidin Railway, the French Syria, and the Russian Armenia. Had both treaties been concluded and published, an agreement would have been reached with England which would have finally ended all doubt of the possibility of an Anglo-German co-operation."

Q.—Was a prophecy made by Lichnowsky?

A.—Yes. His final remark was: "And what result have we to expect from the struggle of peoples? The United States of Africa will be British, like the United States of America, Australia, and Oceania; and the Latin States of Europe will fall into the same relationship to the United Kingdom as the Latin sisters of America to the United States. They will be dominated by the Anglo-Saxon: France, exhausted by the war, will link herself still more closely to Great Britain. In the long run, Spain also will not resist.

"In Asia, the Russians and the Japanese will expand their borders and their customs, and the South will remain to the British.

"The world will belong to the Anglo-Saxon, the Russian and the Japanese, and the German will remain alone with Austria and Hungary. His sphere of power will be that of thought and trade, not that of the bureaucrats and the soldiers. The German appeared too late, and the world war has destroyed the last possibility of catching up the lost ground, of founding a Colonial Empire, for we shall not supplant the sons of Japheth. The program of the great Rhodes, who saw the salvation of mankind in British expansion and British imperialism, will be realized."

Q.—What rations are allowed to an Englishman?

A.—A system of rationing went into effect in London and the English counties on meat, butter and margarine on February 25, 1918. The allowance for meat is 20 ounces per mature person per week. Children over 10 are entitled to only one-half a pound weekly.

Meat, butter and margarine may be obtained on ration-cards only. On the meat cards are four coupons for each. Of these only three may be used in buying butchers' meats, such as beef, mutton and pork.

The butter and margarine ration is four ounces per person weekly.

Q.—Were meatless days ordered in England?

A.—Not until January, 1918, when Lord Rhondda, the Food Controller, issued an order applying to all hotels, restaurants, boarding houses, and public places, to begin forthwith. It specified two meatless days weekly—Tuesdays and Fridays in the London district, and Wednesdays and Fridays in other parts of the kingdom.

It ordered that between the hours of 5 and 10:30 o'clock in the morning no meat, poultry, or game may be consumed on any day, and no milk may be consumed as a beverage except by children under ten years of age.

A guest must provide his own sugar for sweetening beverages except that residents of hotels, clubs, and boarding houses may be supplied with not exceeding six ounces of sugar weekly for this purpose, if they do not possess the ordinary sugar rations.

Q.—Had England done anything else in food regulation?

A.—In 1916 it was made illegal for bread to be sold unless it were at least twelve hours old, and in the shape of a one-piece oven bottom loaf, or a tin loaf or a roll, no currant, sultana, or milk bread to be sold, and no sugar to be used in making bread. Bakers were also prohibited from exchanging new bread for old. All bread was to be sold by weight, and the loaves had to weigh under 1 pound or an even number of pounds, and loaves not weighing the prescribed amount were to be cut up and sold by weight. Rolls had to weigh 2 ounces.

Q.—What was the price for potatoes fixed in Great Britain?

A.—The fixing of prices created a good deal of criticism and protest in England and ultimately it was decided that the prices named should not be regarded as contract prices, but as minimum prices, guaranteed by the Government for potatoes of the first quality. Prices were as follow:

£5 15s. per ton for delivery from December 15 to January 31, 1917.

£6 per ton for delivery in February and March, 1917.

£6 10s. per ton for delivery for the remainder of the season, for quantities of not less than six tons, F.O.B. or F.O.R.

Q.—Were meat prices high in England in 1918?

A.—It was reported in March that the prices ranged from about 43 cents a pound for the best cuts to about 25 cents a pound for inferior cuts.

Q.—Did the British nation's whole food cost increase very heavily?

A.—England's imports of foodstuffs in the whole of 1917 increased $198,500,000 in cost over the preceding year, the increase being very largely due to higher prices.

Q.—Is it possible to purchase sugar in England without buying other provisions at the same time?

A.—It is illegal for anybody to make conditional food-sales in Great Britain. Food Order, 1917, provides that, except under authority of the Food Controller, no person may impose any condition, when selling any article of food, to necessitate the purchase of any other article. Grocers may not sell any article of food in excess of the customer's ordinary requirements.

Q.—Whence does England draw most of her supplies in peace?

A.—She obtained the following supplies of wheat in 1913, 1914 and 1915 in cwts.:—

Place.	1913.	1914.	1915.
U. S. A.	22,000,000	34,200,000	41,600,000
Argentina ..	16,000,000	6,500,000	12,200,000
India ...	21,500,000	10,700,000	13,900,000
Canada	19,000,000	31,500,000	19,700,000
Russia .	10,700,000	7,200,000	800,000
A'stralia	12,000,000	12,100,000	200,000
Roumania	896,000	343,000	.....
Chile ..	511,000	51,000	.....
Total	102,607,000	102,594,000	88,400,000

This would seem to suggest that during 1915 England must have drawn on her stores for at least 14,000,000 cwts., and, therefore, had to enter 1916 with a more slender margin between importation and consumption than is customary.

Q.—What foods does England import and raise?

A.—It is somewhat difficult to answer that question as there are so many items, and given in such different measures, while no estimate even can be made as to the local production of many articles of food. The main staples can, however, be given:—

	Produced in U. K. Tons.	Imported. Tons.
Wheat and flour..	1,600,000	6,100,000
Butter	84,000	200,000
Potatoes	5,500,000	200,000
Cheese	140,000	120,000
Margarine	.....	70,000
Sugar	.....	1,800,000
Maize	.....	2,200,000
Rice	.....	300,000
Rabbits	?	20,000
Beef	800,000	480,000
Mutton	200,000	250,000
Bacon and hams..	390,000	280,000
Eggs	?	2,225,000,000 eggs (worth £7,300,000).

The total value of food imports in 1913 was $1,381,000,000.

Q.—Just what proportion of wheat is imported?

A.—The Prime Minister told the House of Commons in 1916 that between 70 and 80 per cent of the staple cereal supply was imported every year. He said then that the existing food stocks were alarmingly low, and urged that every effort should be made to increase that year's harvest and the next. If the area under cultivation was not increased at once, he said, the nation might have to choose between diminishing its military efforts and underfeeding its population.

Q.—Were there heavy imports of wheat into England during 1916?

A.—The imports for what is called the harvest year (September 1, 1915, to August 31, 1916) were practically the same as for the previous one, 1914-15, viz., 106,000,000 cwts., as compared with 110,000,000 cwts. for 1913-14, but the home production was 41,500,000 cwts., as against 31,300,000 in 1913-14, and 36,700,000 cwts. in 1914-15. During the last five months of 1916 viz., from June 17th to December 16th, the imports were as follow:

	June 17-Dec. 16, 1916. Cwts.	June 17-Dec. 16, 1915. Cwts.	June 17-Dec. 16. 1914. Cwts.
Imports	49,271,200	50,897,000	64,502,300
Home grown	18,416,500	16,059,600	17,876,300
Total	67,687,700	66,956,600	82,378,600

It would seem, therefore, that the imports during the twelve months of 1916 were a good deal behind those of 1914.

Q.—Is it true that supplies—notably sugar—shipped to the Allies have been resold to Americans?

A.—Food shipped to the Allies is, from the moment of its arrival, under supervision or control of Government agencies.

In Italy such an agency exists since 1915, under control of a "Commissary General of Supplies." Especially drastic regulations govern the use, import and export of sugar.

In France, a special "Ministry of Provisioning and Maritime Transports" takes care of all imports and exports.

In England the "Ministry of Food" and the "Royal Wheat Commission" look after such matters. To re-sell supplies exported from America to the Allies is, therefore, next to impossible.

Q.—Has the amount as well as the value of meat imports into Great Britain greatly increased since war began?

A.—During 1916, 533,811 tons of frozen and chilled meat were imported into the United Kingdom, as against 662,925 tons in 1915, and 694,427 tons in 1914. It is probable that the amount consumed in England was nearly the same in 1916 as it was in 1914, because large quantities were diverted to the British armies on the Continent, and do not appear in the statistics. The total amount of meat consumed in 1916, including the home-killed supplies, was 1,677,548 tons. The value of meat imported in 1914 was £30,059,527; in 1915, £39,576,930; and in 1916, £36,484,143.

Q.—What sheep, pigs, and cattle are in the United Kingdom?

A.—In 1914 there were 12,184,505 head of cattle; 27,960,000 sheep; 3,952,600 pigs. Sheep had increased in number by 200,000 in 1915, but cattle and pigs had decreased to 12,000,000 and 3,860,000 respectively. Of the pigs 2,400,000 were in England and Wales, 100,000 in Scotland, and 1,300,000 in Ireland. Ireland had 4,850,000 of the cattle and England 5,300,000. There were 1,850,000 horses in 1914 and 150,000 fewer in 1915.

Q.—Has the British War Office called agricultural laborers under the Compulsory Service Bill?

A.—Apparently it called up 30,000 men before 1917. Lord Derby, the Minister of War, says that about 180,000 agriculturists have joined the forces since the beginning of the war, and that in 1918, 30,000 men of military age were employed on or about the farms of England and Wales. From that number the War Office had been authorized to take 60,000 men who had been refused exemption by the tribunals. The War Cabinet, however, reduced this number to 30,000, and presumably no more will be taken off the land. Obviously it will be difficult for the farmers of Great Britain to produce increased crops when almost half their laborers have gone to France.

Q.—Are children much used in England in agricultural work?

A.—There has been a good deal of protest concerning the way in which children have been working in the fields, thus losing many months of their school education at a time when it was most necessary to them. The need for labor, however, induced educational authorities to release large numbers of children from compulsory attendance at school. The Kent Educational Committee, for instance, in January, 1917, released 638 children for agricultural work, and similar action has been taken all over the country.

Q.—Could England, Scotland and Ireland together produce enough to feed the United Kingdom?

A.—Probably they could, but it would be at the expense of some of their great industries. Millions now engaged in manufacturing work would have to go on the land. Great estates would have to be cut up and up-to-date methods would have to be employed. At present the United Kingdom produces enough wheat to last its people for three, possibly four, months. To provide a full wheat supply 6,000,000 acres would have to be cultivated instead of 1,850,000, acres as before the war; or the yield per acre would have to be increased as it was in Germany. Sugar beet factories would have to be erected and great areas would have to be planted with this root crop. The dairying industry would have to be immensely developed; fisheries, too; and the working classes would have to revert to their one meat-meal a week, to which they were accustomed before cold storage brought lamb, mutton and beef within their reach. Thus, to become self-supporting, Great Britain would have to turn herself into an agricultural country and cease to be a great industrial center of the world.

Q.—Does England get much food from Holland and Scandinavia?

A.—The value of the imports from Holland before the war was about £19,000,000, from Denmark about £20,000,000, from Norway about £7,000,000, and from Sweden about £12,000,000 per annum, a total of £58,000,000 every year. Practically the whole of the imports from Holland were foodstuffs: Peas, rice, eggs, fish, cheese, butter (£1,000,000), margarine (£2,000,000), sugar (£2,000,000), hides, poultry, condensed milk. From Denmark too, little but food was imported, butter accounting for more than half the total, the rest being made up of eggs, bacon and other dairy produce.

From Norway the largest food export was fish (£938,000 in 1914); butter, ice, fish-oil together amounted to barely £500,000. The chief items were paper, wood-pulp, and timber. From Sweden not only about £2,000,000 worth of butter, eggs, and the like were obtained, but over £1,000,000 of iron and iron ore was sent from Sweden to Great Britain. Wood-pulp, paper and timber amounted to more than £8,000,000.

Q.—Does Great Britain produce most of the pork she requires?

A.—No. She relies heavily upon Denmark, Holland and the United States for supplies of bacon, pork and ham. The President of the Board of Agriculture has, however, urged the breeding of large numbers of pigs, and has suggested the starting of "Pig Clubs" in every district. The object of these clubs is to get in touch with those who are willing to keep a pig, and to find out to what extent they need financial assistance in the purchase of the animal. This method had already been in good working order for some time in Germany. Pigs, there, are always very numerous, and form one of the greatest meat supplies of the country. Some time ago, it is reported, everyone able to do so was required to keep a pig. The piglet was supplied by the authorities, and when it had grown up, was taken away, and replaced by another small piglet. In this way, the Germans have greatly increased the number of pigs available for market throughout the whole empire.

Q.—Why do European nations not use more corn?

A.—They are not accustomed to it. What they call "corn" is wheat and rye. Their name for our corn is "maize," and that, by the way, is the correct name. In reading European articles, it is well to remember that the word "corn" means the real cereals in Europe. Many a writer on Europe has made queer mistakes by not being aware of this.

Q.—Could we not induce them to use our corn?

A.—In 1918 the Europeans decided to do so. Their food shortage was such that the Allies consented to much greater use of corn than had been anticipated. The Allied countries normally raise 121,109,000 bushels of corn and import from the United States 10,811,000 bushels, and 135,670,000 from other sources, their total consumption in pre-war times being 266,596,000 bushels.

Of a crop of 3,124,000,000 bushels the United States expected to have a surplus of about 370,000,000 bushels, and Canada a 62,000,000 bushel surplus.

Q.—How many nations in Europe are self-supporting?

A.—Every European nation relies to some extent upon imports, and if these were suddenly to stop, it would entail great hardships on certain countries, while some would suffer heavily. The producing countries could exist after a fashion, but in others the people would starve quickly. The two countries most dependent on supplies from beyond their borders are the United Kingdom and Italy. Great Britain largely lives on imported foodstuffs, and gets copper, oil, cotton, wool and other essential raw material from overseas. Italy has to rely entirely on other countries for coal, and imports immense quantities of wheat, meat and other foodstuffs. France could exist without imports even more easily than Germany has done. Countries like Denmark, Holland, Norway and Sweden, although they import foodstuffs, probably could make shift to support themselves. Great poverty would result, however, if the condition should last long.

Almost all these countries lack coal. Probably the most self-supporting countries in Europe are Spain, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Serbia, Turkey and Russia. Switzerland lives largely on imported cereals, and has to get coal and other minerals from abroad.

Q.—Has the productivity of France decreased since the war?

A.—There has been a notable decrease. Edmond Thery made a special study of French agriculture, and published the following remarkable tables. The first of the tables deals with cereals, and is as follows (the figures representing thousands of quintals and covering the total production of France):—

Years Mean	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.
1905-1914	87,970	12,869	9,862	48,995
1913	86,919	12,715	10,438	51,826
1914	76,936	11,147	9,753	46,206
1915	60,630	8,420	6,921	34,626
1916	58,411	9,116	8,579	41,280

The second table gives similar figures

for potatoes, wine, sugar, and is as follows:—

Years. Mean	Potatoes. Millions of Quintals.	Wine. Millions of Hecto-litres.	Sugar. Millions of Kilos.
1905-1914	134	53	705
1913	136	44	878
1914	120	56	717
1915	94	18	303
1916	88	33	136

Thery considers the state of affairs will be worse after the war, because of the anticipated competition of manufacturers and traders for labor.

Q.—Have the French restricted food consumption?

A.—Yes. M. Heriot, the wonderful organizer of Lyons, who was made Food Controller in France, issued a decree that food consumption must be reduced. According to this decree no person in any public feeding place could be served with more than two dishes, only one of which could be meat. Apart from these two dishes the consumer was entitled to soup or *hors d'œuvres,* and cheese or dessert, but not both. Vegetables, whether cooked or raw, were to be counted as separate dishes if served separately. In order to reduce the consumption of flour, milk, eggs and sugar, *entremets* were suppressed. All restaurant menus had to be radically simplified, and were subject to official inspection and control. They could not include more than two soups and nine dishes, which were as follow: One dish of eggs of various sorts, two varieties of fish, three varieties of vegetables.

Q.—Is less French land cultivated now than before the war?

A.—Under wheat in the early part of 1917 there were 4,207,530 hectares, as against 5,205,620 in 1916, which was less than normal. Under millet there were 84,485 hectares, as against 101,205 in 1916; under rye 809,735 hectares, as against 1,025,600 in 1916, and under oats 2,605,070 hectares, as against 3,044,760 in 1916. Only in barley was there a slight increase, 596,705 hectares in 1917 to 586,285 in 1916. The average yield per hectare was much less.

Q.—Does Chile export wheat?

A.—Chile once supplied Argentine and California with wheat, but after these countries became producers themselves the Chilean output declined. The value of the wheat exported the year before the war was about $5,000,000. Most of it went to Great Britain.

Q.—When were the European sugar bounties abolished?

A.—They were abolished by the Convention of Brussels in 1902. An object of this Convention was to put an end to the bounty war for the British market, which the Continental Powers had been waging among themselves. In England it was hoped that the sugar cane growers of the West Indies would benefit. The Continental Powers agreed to the abolition of the bounties only on the distinct understanding that special tariffs equal to the bounty should be levied on sugar produced in countries not signatories to the Convention. Great Britain, however, in 1908, when the treaty came up for renewal, declared that she would sign only if she were allowed to import bounty-fed sugar on the same terms as she imported sugar not bounty-fed. The Continental Powers strongly protested, but only by being relieved from the undertaking to penalize bounty-fed sugar would Great Britain re-sign the Convention.

Q.—Did the price of sugar go up in England in consequence?

A.—In 1902 the price of sugar f.o.b. Hamburg was 6s. 7½d. per cwt.; next year it went up to 8s. 3¾d., and in 1908 it was 10s. 5¾d. In this connection it is worth quoting what Mr. Chamberlain said on the question of sugar, before he became a protectionist:—

"The policy which this country has been applying for many years is to prefer the large consuming interests of the whole community to the small producing interest of any single class. . . . It is to the interest of the sugar consuming public to have raw and refined sugar cheap; it is to the interest of the English sugar refineries to have raw sugar cheap and refined sugar dear, and it is to the interest of the West India sugar growers to have raw sugar dear."

Q.—Did Germany pay larger bounties than any other country?

A.—The French bounties were the highest of all, averaging 4s. 6d. per cwt. Then came the Russian with 3s.; then the German with 1s. 6d.; and then the Austrian with 1s. 3d.

Q.—Give particulars as to where sugar imported into Great Britain before the war came from?

A.—The cane sugar was all imported raw. The following figures were for 1910:—

Raw Cane Sugar.

	Tons.
Java	118,304
Cuba	96,332
Peru	46,206
Brazil	51,469
Mauritius	41,739
West Indies	78,737
Other countries	120,504
Total	553,291

Raw Beet Sugar.

	Tons.
Russia	93
Germany	229,970
Holland	20,294
Belgium	10,996
France	436
Austria	57,918
Total	319,707

Great Britain, however, got most of her sugar ready refined, and practically all of this was made from beet. The imports were as follows:

	Tons.
Russia	2,289
Germany	325,792
Holland	118,161
Belgium	49,460
France	60,987
Austria	199,466
Other countries	80,707
Total	836,862

The value of the raw cane sugar was £6,689,345; of the raw beet sugar, £3,728,931; and of the refined sugar, £13,161,023, in the two years 1909 and 1910.

Q.—Was all this sugar consumed in the United Kingdom?

A.—Great Britain exported in 1910 31,416 tons of refined sugar, and consumed 1,728,730, of which 1,166,569 tons were beet sugar and 562,161 tons cane sugar. The year 1910 is hardly a truly representative one, as there was a bad drought in Europe, and sugar was scarce. In 1909 1,467,764 tons of beet sugar were consumed in the United Kingdom, and 292,393 tons of cane sugar.

Q.—What sugar was imported into the United Kingdom before war?

A.—27,900,000 cwts. in 1910, 30,300,000 cwts. in 1911, 26,600,000 cwts. in 1912, and 31,100,000 cwts. in 1913. Just over half of the annual import came from Germany and Austria. Beet sugar was also imported from Holland and Russia. Cane sugar was obtained from the West Indies and India. It is interesting to note, though, that, although the British West Indies are regarded as mainly sugar-growing countries, the value of their cocoa and fruit exports is greater than that of their sugar nowadays.

Q.—Were American food-savings an important factor in Europe's supply?

A.—They were a decisive factor on the Allied side. In the winter of 1917, when it was learned that the American wheat surplus had been used up, a prominent Englishman was reported to have cabled Mr. Hoover: "We are beaten; the war is over." Yet the savings through wheatless days and war-breads made it possible to send across 20,000,000 bushels of 1917 wheat considered necessary for home consumption. Our voluntary rationing added probably a total of 150,000,000 bushels to the wheat supplies of our Allies, besides vast quantities of beef and pork.

Here is the record:

	Pounds.
Shipments of meats, fats and dairy products, 1916-17	2,166,500,000
Shipments of meats, fats and dairy products, 1917-18	3,011,100,000
Increase	844,600,000
	Bushels.
Cereals and cereal products, 1916-17	259,900,000
Cereals and cereal products, 1917-18	340,800,000
Increase	80,900,000

"I am sure," says Mr. Hoover, "that all the millions of our people, agricultural as well as urban, who have contributed to these results should feel a very definite satisfaction. . . .

"It is difficult to distinguish between various sections of our people—the homes, public eating-places, food trades, urban or agricultural populations—in assessing credit for these results, but no one will deny the dominant part of the American women."

Q.—What have European countries done about the use of alcohol?

A.—France and Italy abolished the famous and deadly drink kown as absinthe, Russia prohibited the noted distilled brandy-like drink known as vodka. Great Britain greatly limited brewing.

Q.—Was drunkenness in England really great?

A.—The figures of convictions for drunkenness in the sixteen English cities which have a population of over 200,000 show a notable decrease since the war. In the year 1913 the convictions in these sixteen large towns were 107,316. In 1915 the convictions were 80,091, and in 1916 they were 46,638. In London the drop has been from 65,488 in 1913, to 29,453 in 1916. In Liverpool the convictions in 1913 were 14,894, and in 1916 only 5,926. Of course millions of men have gone into the army, but this is to a great extent balanced by the fact that the working classes have been fully employed at high wages, which in fact, in ordinary circumstances, would tend to increase drunkenness; so that the decrease may reasonably be credited to the way in which the sale and consumption of liquor have been regulated.

Q.—Was the decrease due mostly to restrictions on liquor?

A.—Notably. The Central Control Board states that during the five years 1909-13, there was a steady rise in the number of convictions for drunkenness. A rapid decline set in immediately after the orders of the Board came into operation. In December, 1913, the total convictions in the London areas numbered 5,701; in December, 1914, they were 5,295; in December, 1915, they were 3,105. In February, 1916, they had fallen to 2,506. From statistics gathered by the Board it would seem that the reduction of drunkenness throughout England was from 40 to 50 per cent. Results in Scotland had not been so satisfactory. The Board was taking special steps to deal with the increase of drunkenness among women, especially those in receipt of separation allowances.

Q.—Was the English order for restrictions of beer intended for temperance?

A.—Lord Devonport in explaining it specifically stated that the object was to increase the amount of certain commodities available for food, and to economize in tonnage, transport, fuel and labor. During the last few years, owing to various restrictions, the consumption of beer, wines, and spirits had been falling rapidly in the United Kingdom, but the consumption of other beverages showed a corresponding increase. The Board of Trade returns give the imports of tea, coffee and cocoa, as follow:—

	Tea.	Coffee.	Cocoa (raw)
	lbs.	cwts.	lbs.
1913 ..	365,000,000	847,000	78,000,000
1916 ..	377,000,000	1,647,000	196,000,000

The imports of tea in 1915 reached an even higher figure, the amount being 431,000,000 pounds. That is to say, that in 1916 room had to be found in ships for 2,000,000 cwts. more tea, coffee and cocoa than in the year before the war.

Q.—Did restrictions on beer in England save much barley?

A.—According to Lord Devonport the regulations, which reduced the output of beer to 50 per cent of the pre-war total, saved 286,000 tons of barley, 36,000 tons of sugar, and 16,500 tons of grits. It was really, he said, a question of bread versus beer. The regulation actually provided for the malting of 70 per cent only of the output of beer for the financial year ending on March 31, 1917, which is equivalent to a reduction of 50 per cent on the pre-war production. Before the war the output was 36,000,000 standard barrels; for 1917 it was expected to be 18,200,000 only.

Q.—Did the Food Board under Hoover have power to fix retail prices?

A.—No. Congress declined to give such powers, and it is probably correct to say that the Administration did not strongly desire them, because of complications and opposition that could be foreseen readily enough.

Q.—How, then, did the Government succeed in regulating retail dealers?

A.—It did not "succeed," if by "succeed" you mean in keeping retail prices down to prescribed levels. It did, however, succeed in a very large sense, for it established not only a strong and intelligent public opinion but also a general clear perception among the retail merchants of the whole country that they must exercise discretion and moderation.

Q.—Did the Food Board exercise only moral influence?

A.—Technically and legally speaking, yes. But in actuality Hoover's machinery had a very real and very powerful weapon to compel observance of rules that had no statute law behind them. This weapon lay in the legal control which Congress had given to the Food Board over the wholesale system of food supplies. Under a licensing system for wholesalers, the Food Board was able, in actual practice, to divert supplies from retail dealers who transgressed the rules.

Q.—How many European soldiers could we feed?

A.—The Food Administration announced in March, 1918, that food sufficient to furnish a balanced ration to an average of more than 16,000,000 men yearly was shipped from the United States from the beginning of the war to January 1, 1918, to Great Britain, France, Italy, and Russia. In addition, there was a surplus of some 625,000 tons of protein and 268,000 tons of fats.

Q.—How was this apportioned?

A.—Russia received less than 1 per cent of the total, or only enough to feed about 10,000 men a year. Great Britain took more than half of the entire total, or enough to feed about 8,000,000 men. France was next, with enough for 4,200,000 men, and Italy sufficient for more than 2,000,000 men. The three together received an excess of protein capable of supplying this portion of the diet to some 20,000,000 additional men.

Q.—Did we ship much food abroad in February, 1918?

A.—The exports of grains and cereals, including flour, to the Allied nations and for Belgium relief work totaled 553,429 tons for the month of February, 1918.

A tabulation of the exports of grains and cereals by weeks was:

	Tons.
Feb. 1 to 7	84,658
Feb. 8 to 14	150,095
Feb. 15 to 21	143,829
Feb. 22 to 28	174,847
Total	553,429

Q.—Did our total food exports rise in 1917?

A.—The Bureau of Domestic and Foreign Commerce reported early in 1918 that during 1917 dairy and meat product exports had jumped to new high figures but cereal exports had declined. The exports of meat, dairy products and food animals in 1917 exceeded $400,000,000, against less than $150,000,000 in the year before the war, and against $255,000,000 in the high record year 1916. Part of this increased value is due, of course, to the vastly higher prices; but the actual quantities have increased enormously. The exports of wheat for 1917 were 106,202,318 bushels, for which the foreign interests paid $245,633,541. These exports were 48 million bushels less than for 1916. Total shipments of corn in 1917 were 52,169,583 bushels, against 55,548,298 bushels in 1916.

Q.—What quantity of flour did we ship since war began?

A.—The total exports of wheat and wheat flour to Great Britain, France, and Italy were equivalent to 384,000,000 bushels, or an average of 110,000,000 bushels per year. Exports of pork and pork products totaled almost 2,000,000,000 pounds, while sugar exports to those countries showed a yearly average of

648,000,000 pounds. Oats exports for the three and one-half years totaled 212,751,000 bushels, corn 24,310,000 bushels, and rye 3,618,000 bushels.

Q.—Did we do equally well with meat exports?

A.—Exports of fresh beef amounted to 443,484,000 pounds in the three and one-half years, while exports of butter totaled 29,000,000 pounds, cheese 103,500,000 pounds, and condensed milk 126,000,000 pounds. Cottonseed, linseed, and other oil products and by-products to be used for feeding cattle, totaled 611,000,000 pounds.

Q.—What are "Farm Loans"?

A.—To relieve farmers from the high interest charges levied by private interests when they need loans, a Federal Farm Loan Act was passed in 1916. It established 12 Federal Land Banks and these banks lend money to the farmers on security which is provided as follows: in any place farmers may form a farm loan association and this association can go to a Federal Loan Bank and obtain loans on mortgages laid on the farm property. These loans may run from 5 to 40 years and are at 6 per cent or less. The Federal Farm Loan Banks get their funds by selling to the investing public bonds secured by the mortgages.

Q.—Has this method been successful?

A.—It was most successful. Up to August, 1918, more than 51,000 farmers had obtained loans averaging $2,200 each, and the aggregate of loans actually closed was $117,249,000.

Q.—What was the effect of the war on American agricultural values?

A.—Farm products of the United States reached the unprecedented value of $19,443,849,381 during 1917, an increase of more than $6,000,000,000 over 1916 and almost $9,000,000,000 more than in 1915. The estimate shows crops were valued at $13,610,462,782 and represented 70 per cent of the value of all farm products. Animals and animal products were valued at $5,833,386,599 in 1917, an increase of almost $1,500,000,000 over 1916.

Q.—Which States profited most from the rise in agricultural values?

A.—Value of all farm crops for 1917 by states, not including the value of animals and animal products, shows Illinois first, Texas second, and Iowa third. In 1916 Texas led, with Iowa second and Illinois third.

Illinois is the banner farm crop state. The value of her crops last year exceeded that of Texas, which carried away the honor in 1916. Iowa's crops were slightly under those of Texas in value last year. Iowa was in second place in 1916, with Illinois third.

Q.—How do our States rank agriculturally?

A.—We give the states in geographical order. The number following each state name indicates its rank in agriculture as compared with the rest: Maine 37; New Hampshire 46; Vermont 42; Massachusetts 38; Rhode Island 48; Connecticut 39; New York 12: New Jersey 34; Pennsylvania 13; Delaware 44; Maryland 31; Virginia 22; West Virginia 30; North Carolina 11; South Carolina 15; Georgia 6; Florida 33; Ohio 4; Indiana 8; Illinois 1; Michigan 21; Wisconsin 17; Minnesota 9; Iowa 3; Missouri 5; North Dakota 27; South Dakota 18; Nebraska 7; Kansas 14; Kentucky 16; Tennessee 26; Alabama 25; Mississippi 19; Louisiana 24; Texas 2; Oklahoma 23; Arkansas 20; Montana 35; Wyoming 40; Colorado 28; New Mexico 43; Arizona 45; Utah 41; Nevada 47; Idaho 63; Washington 29; Oregon 32; California 10.

Q.—How much of our increase was new wealth?

A.—The new wealth produced on the farms in 1917 ($19,443,849,381) compares with former years as follows:

	Crops.	Animals and products.
1917	$13,610,462,782	$5,833,386,599
1916	9,054,458,922	4,351,905,089
1915	6,907,186,742	3,868,303,670
1914	6,111,684,020	3,783,276,511
1913	6,132,758,962	3,716,753,549

Q.—When did American agriculture begin to prosper?

A.—In the period following 1897, when prices were just beginning to rise from their preceding generation of declines,

consequent upon the opening up of the great West to surplus grain and animal production.

Q.—Did our agricultural values rise steadily from that time?

A.—Almost without a break. The only pause was in 1911, which produced a smaller crop in value than 1910. The values of all farm produce in 1917 were nearly five times what they were in 1897, twenty years before, while those of animals and their products were four times as large. In the same period, the general average of all commodities rose by 156 per cent; or, in other words, prices in 1917 were one and one-half times what they were twenty years before.

Q.—Did prices for foodstuff to the consumer go up steadily too?

A.—Not quite so steadily. In 1901 there was a drop from the preceding year; in the depressed year 1904 there was another decline, which was not recovered until 1915.

Q.—Is wheat our most valuable crop?

A.—No. In America corn is king. In 1917, corn, with a value of $4,053,672,000, led all other crops.

Q.—Did wheat come next in value?

A.—No. Wheat comes almost last. The crop next in value to corn is cotton, with a value of $1,517,558,000 in 1917. Then come hay, valued at $1,359,491,000; wheat, worth $1,307,427,000, and oats, worth $1,061,427,000.

Q.—Did our live stock increase or decrease after we joined the war?

A.—Live stock in the United States on January 1, 1918, was valued at $8,263,524,000, the Department of Agriculture announced. That was an increase of $1,527,912,000 over the year before.

Q.—How do prices to-day of sugar, eggs, corn, wheat, cotton, butter, beans, cattle, hogs, etc., compare with the prices of Civil War days?

A.—Prices of these foods increased much more rapidly than in this war, averaging then probably 250 per cent more than normal. In Civil War days the price of sugar increased from 5 cents to 35 cents a pound, eggs from 14½ to 46 cents per dozen, corn meal from 3¼ to 8¾ cents per pound, wheat from 94 cents to $2.16 per bushel, cattle from $3.37½ to $9.50 per hundred pounds, butter from 15½ to 55 cents per pound, beans from 3½ to 11½ cents per pound, cotton from 15¼ cents to $1.64 per pound, hogs from $4.18 to $15.60 per hundred pounds.

Q.—What caused the higher prices in Civil War days?

A.—The enormous increases in prices during Civil War days were almost entirely due to the speculative operations and to the inflation of the currency and depreciation of the dollar. No taint was attached to persons who made money out of food speculations in those days. It is also happily true that higher political and commercial ideals by American business men to-day made possible the United States Food Administration which induced business men to voluntarily keep prices down without legal compulsion.

Q.—What commodity increased most in price in Civil War days?

A.—Alcohol, which went from 37 cents to $4.75 per gallon. The same percentage of increase to-day would make alcohol sell for $43.63 per gallon, instead of its present price of $3.75.

Q.—Why does the Food Administration emphasize the saving of meat, wheat, sugar and fats only? Are not potatoes, beans, corn, etc., just as important foods?

A.—Because the first four food products are the most compact food products that exist in large quantities. In shipping food to Europe we must pack every cubic yard of cargo-space with the maximum quantity of food it will hold.

Q.—Was the world's wheat yield in 1916 less than in 1915?

A.—It was about 240,000,000 cwts. less in 1916 than in 1915.

Q.—What was the total grain production of the world in 1916?

A.—Excluding the crops of enemy nations, particulars of which are not available, the total production of wheat, rye, barley, oats and maize in the northern

and southern hemispheres in the year 1916-17 amounted to 243,321,414 tons, a decrease of 50,795,383 tons, compared with 1915, and 19,145,481 tons less than the average for the five years 1911-1915, the percentage decline being in each case 17.3 and 7.3 respectively.

Q.—What is the American wheat supply?

A.—The wheat crop of the United States for 1917 was estimated by the September forecast at 668,000,000 bushels, as compared with 640,000,000 bushels in 1916. Both of these yields are below the five-year average of 806,000,000 bushels. The normal demand for seed and domestic consumption in the United States is about 600,000,000 bushels, which would leave available only 68,000,000 bushels for exportation to the Allies and to neutrals.

Wheat exports for the year ending in June, 1917, were 149,837,427 bushels, of which 144,486,749 went to the Allied powers and to European neutrals. To this must be added 11,942,505 barrels of wheat flour, 7,366,294 of which were sent to Europe.

The needs of the Allies annually, at the lowest conservative estimate, are 550,000,000 bushels of wheat.

THE WORLD'S RAW MATERIALS

Q.—Where is warring America weak in minerals?

A.—The war strength of a country depends upon the developed mineral resources within her own borders.

Our mineral industry is equal to all the war demands upon it in all but seven products. These are: potash, nitrogen, manganese, nickel, tin, platinum and pyrites, while a stringency is felt in regard to mica, graphite and a few lesser minerals.

Q.—How about potash?

A.—Potash is an indispensable fertilizing material. Three years ago, Germany held a world monopoly of this substance. The United States Government, fortunately, through its research bureaus, found sources of domestic supply. As a result, America's potash production, which made a modest bow in 1915, for the first half of 1917 had risen to 14,000 tons, valued at nearly $6,000,000. The greatest single source, supplying one-third, was contributed by the Nebraska Alkali lakes. A further increase is expected from the newly discovered deposits of Searles Lake. Had the war come five years earlier, America would have been involved in a potash famine.

During the year, the United States will produce scarcely more than 12 per cent of her normal potash needs.

Q.—How can we get nitrogen?

A.—Nitrogen is even more important to us than potash, for, aside from its use in agriculture, it forms the basis of all explosives. Chile has supplied the United States with nitrogen for fifty years (from nitrate (guano) deposits), but it may be obtained from the atmosphere and coal.

In countries lacking coal or with abundant water power, the air is the most prolific source of nitrogen. Where coal is plentiful, and where an iron industry requires considerable coke, coal is the most logical source of supply.

Coke is coal from which nitrogen and other volatile constituents have been extracted. Although the latter conditions exist in America, we send $20,000,000 to Chile for nitrogen salts, while we waste in our coke industry that value of nitrogen as well as other valued by-products.

The Government in 1916 authorized a plant to extract atmospheric nitrogen at a cost of $20,000,000. A complete recovery of nitrogen in the coke industry would have more completely placed the United States on an independent basis with regard to its nitrogen needs.

Q.—Where are the Chilean nitrate deposits situated?

A.—In the northern provinces of Tacna, Tarapaca, Antofagasta and Atacama. The first two were taken from Peru in the war of 1879-82. By the terms of the treaty of 1884, Tacna was placed under Chilean authority for ten years only, after the lapse of which period the inhabitants were to decide by referendum whether they wished to remain Chilean or revert to Peru. Chile has consistently blocked any attempt to put the referendum on the ground that all the present inhabitants must vote. Peru insists that only those who lived there when the treaty was made should be consulted. The situation thus developed is somewhat like that which would complicate a referendum in Alsace and Lorraine. A further similarity is caused by the fact that the Germans have developed the iron mines in that province immensely, and to do that have brought in great numbers of Teutons, whose vote would have important weight. The Chileans have developed the huge nitrate deposits, and to do that have brought in Chilean laborers, who would no doubt vote for inclusion in Chile. As the Chilean war against Peru had as object the acquisition of these valuable deposits, the Chileans are not likely to part with them.

Q.—How much saltpeter does Chile export annually?

A.—Nitrate is the chief export of the country. The quantity sent away has steadily increased year by year—1907, 1,650,000 metric tons; 1909, 2,309,000 tons; 1913, 2,600,000 tons. Since the war the export has, of course, fallen off, as Germany, which took more than any other country, was isolated, and could get no supplies. The total value of the 1913 export was $100,000,000, of which some $10,000,000 worth went to Great Britain. The royalty collected by the Chilean Government on the nitrate of soda produced yields about $20,000,000 a year, and is one of the chief sources of national revenue.

Q.—How did ship shortage affect our war material supply?

A.—Very gravely, because, owing to non-development of our own native resources, we depend sadly on all parts of the world for all sorts of basic ores with out which our steel and industries are practically helpless. Thus, ferro-manganese, an absolutely essential alloy for high-grade steel, must be brought from Europe and Brazil. Tungsten, necessary for good tool steel, comes from China and South America. Tin comes from England, the Straits Settlements in the Far East and Bolivia. We have to draw our chromite (without which we cannot make perfect armor-plate or projectiles) from South Africa and the South Seas, shipping it sometimes almost around the world to get it. Graphite, which we must have for crucibles in making crucible steel, comes from Africa and India. Mica, indispensable for insulation in electrical apparatus, comes to us from India. We draw zinc from Australia and sulphur, a fundamental for explosives, from China and Europe.

Q.—Could American mines produce all the basic raw materials we need?

A.—Secretary Lane of the Department of the Interior said in 1918 that we import about 2,000,000 long tons a year of minerals which our own mines might produce, if the Federal government gave the necessary assistance. He enumerated among the metals so imported, which are necessary to manufacture war munitions, sulphur, manganese, graphite, tin, mercury, tungsten, antimony, chromite, magnesite and mica. The United States produces some of these, but not in sufficient quantities. It has deposits of others of the enumerated minerals which have not been commercially profitable to work because of their nature. Some of these, Mr. Lane thinks, might be made profitable by the application of very modern scientific methods.

Q.—Where are nickel and platinum found?

A.—New Caledonia, in the South Pacific, produces most of the world's supply of nickel, but Canada has furnished us with a great part of what we need.

The world is very "hard up" for platinum, which we need badly for electric appliances and for other immediate war purposes. Russia had been furnishing 93 per cent of the world's total output before the war, from her gold deposits in the Ural Mountains. This has been cut off. The Sudbury district in Canada has some in its nickel deposits, and there is some in Bolivia.

Q.—What countries exported most coal before war?

A.—The principal coal exports of the world in 1913, including that used for bunker purposes, were: Great Britain, 93,000,000 tons; Germany, 40,000,000; United States, 29,000,000; Austria-Hungary, 9,000,000; Belgium and Canada, about 5,500,000 each; Netherlands, slightly less than 5,000,000; Japan, nearly 4,000,000; British South Africa, 2,500,000, and Australia, 2,000,000.

It must be noted that these figures do not mean that Holland is a coal-exporting country. Holland has a few coal mines but would not send any coal away were it not for the necessity of coaling the ships that call at her ports. Holland is dependent on other countries for coal, as a matter of fact.

Q.—How did the war change the coal situation?

A.—With the cutting off of Germany's export trade, the United States took second rank as a coal exporter, though far behind Great Britain.

Q.—Whence does Holland now draw her coal?

A.—She is obliged to get it from Germany, as England has none to spare; but in normal times she drew three-fourths of her supplies from the coal mines of Great Britain. In those days she required 10,000,000 tons annually. Now, however, she has to do with much less, and many factories have been closed in consequence. Germany uses her coal as a lever to compel the Dutch to send her supplies of food, just as she does with Switzerland.

Q.—What was the total amount of coal exported by all countries before war?

A.—The total amount of coal passing out of the coal producing countries of the world in 1913 was about 200,000,000 tons, of which about 40,000,000 tons was bunker coal, supplied to vessels engaged in international trade for their use on the oceans, while a considerable percentage of that recorded as exports went to the world's coaling stations, where it was supplied to steamers.

Q.—How much of the coal supply is used by ships?

A.—The coal burned by steam vessels on the oceans aggregates in normal times about $200,000,000 a year in value out of a total of nearly $700,000,000 worth passing out of the coal producing countries of the world.

Q.—Do we really waste our coal?

A.—One of the bulletins of the United States National Museum says that the waste that blackens the skies over the American cities using soft coal is in reality convertible into gas, tar, ammonia, benzol, and an endless number of other by-products, such as dyes, medicines, and explosives.

Q.—How much of our coal do we waste?

A.—The Government bulletin on "Coal Products" says:

"Almost one-seventh of our coal is made into coke, so great are the demands of the iron industry, but two-thirds of this coke is produced without regard to saving the valuable products driven off during its manufacture. Therefore, we face the alarming conclusion that only about 4 per cent of the coal mined in the United States yields its full value to society."

Q.—How much coal does France ordinarily consume?

A.—The annual production was about 40,000,000 tons, and the amount imported about 8,000,000 tons. The total consumption thus would appear to have been nearly 50,000,000 tons a year. More than 60 per cent of the coal mined in France came from the Flemish coal basin, the whole of which is now in enemy hands.

Q.—Does Spain produce all the coal she wants?

A.—Not enough has been mined ordinarily to provide all the quantity needed. Ordinarily about 5,000,000 tons were produced, but 7,000,000 tons were required. An agreement was arrived at by which the miners undertook to work two hours extra every day, a special premium being given them. This arrangement has increased the output to more than 7,000,000 tons.

Q.—What is the amount of Chilean coal imports?

A.—The Chileans have to import coal as their own mines do not yield nearly enough for their industrial requirements. Before the war they were importing some $10,000,000 worth. The imports from Great Britain were greater than from any other country. Next came Germany —almost equal—and then the United States, a good way behind.

Q.—What is the annual production of copper in the world?

A.—In the year before the war it was about 800,000 tons, Australia's contribution being about 40,000 tons. America since then has greatly increased her output, which, in 1916, was said to have exceeded 1,000,000 tons.

Q.—What were American copper exports in 1917?

A.—In 1917 copper exports aggregated 1,083,575,360 pounds (more than half a million tons) and they had been running at the rate of more than 2,240,000 pounds per day during February, 1918.

Q.—How much copper did we refine?

A.—The country's refineries produced in 1917 a total of 2,300,000,000 pounds, an increase of 102,600,000 pounds over the output of copper in the preceding year. When the war began in 1914 the refinery capacity of the United States was estimated at 1,778,000,000 pounds a year. Since then additional facilities have been created which should enable the refining works to produce 2,780,000,000 pounds a year.

Q.—Did we use much more copper after we entered the war?

A.—The consumption of copper in 1917 which passed through the refineries of the United States is estimated to have absorbed all the metal prepared for market in the twelve months and nearly 20,000,000 pounds in addition. That is, the stocks of refined copper held over from 1916, which amounted to about 128,000,000 pounds at the end of the year, were not only not increased during 1917, but were reduced to a level in the neighborhood of 100,000,000 pounds.

Q.—What is the monthly copper production of all America?

A.—The copper production of the Western Hemisphere in January, 1918, is estimated to have been approximately 173,000,000 pounds, an increase of 4,000,-

000 pounds over the December output. If this extreme rate of production could be maintained the year around (which is highly improbable) the total output of copper for this hemisphere alone would be more than a million tons in the year.

Q.—Is much copper found in Chile?

A.—At one time Chile was the greatest producer of copper in the world, but her mines have been neglected. The great war demand for copper has, however, caused much activity, and Americans have invested largely.

Q.—Whence does Great Britain get most of her copper?

A.—From the United States, mostly in the form of unwrought copper. Of the total British import in 1914 of 147,700 tons, 94,800 was from the United States.

Q.—Could the Allies get enough gasoline in their own hemisphere?

A.—The need of the Allied nations in Europe for American gasoline was displayed in the January, 1918, figures of exports, reported by the Bureau of Commerce. The amount of gasoline, naphthas and other light refined oil products shipped abroad was 41,686,142 gallons, compared with 35,335,977 in the same month, 1917, and 38,065,244 in January, 1916. Crude oil, fuel oil and residuum, lubricating and illuminating oil exports declined substantially in comparison with the preceding January. Gasoline for export in barrels was advanced 20 points in price by the Standard Oil Company of New York on February 27 last. The price in 1918 was reported at 12.70 cents a gallon when shipped in barrels.

Q.—Does the British Admiralty own oil fields in Southern Persia and Asia Minor?

A.—Yes. It was to protect this source of supply that early in the war a British warship appeared in the Persian Gulf, and a very strong Indian contingent was landed, which speedily took Basra (the old Bassorah of Sinbad the Sailor in the Arabian Nights Tales), the port from which the oil is shipped.

Q.—From which countries is petroleum drawn?

A.—Most of it comes from the United States, but Mexico's yield is steadily increasing. During 1915 the recorded production was as follows:—

	Gallons.
United States	11,806,372,368
Russia	2,879,018,604
Mexico	1,382,241,336
Dutch East Indies	520,245,936
Roumania	505,256,346
British India	310,800,000
Galicia	174,673,758

Q.—How much oil is being obtained from the Mexican oil-fields?

A.—It seems certain that hardly a start has been made toward the actual full development of the Mexican oil-fields, which are in the Tampico district. Fifteen of the wells now operated there have a capacity of 250 million barrels a year. When we note that the total yield on oil in the United States in 1916 was 307 million barrels, we are led to credit the assertion that the full capacity of the Tampico territory probably would equal the output of all other oil regions in the world combined.

Q.—Who owns the Tampico oil-fields?

A.—They belong for the greater part to four great companies, although there are about 275 smaller operators. The big companies are: the Mexican Petroleum, controlling 700,000 acres, incorporated in California; the Aguila, holding 700,000 acres close to the coast, a British corporation, controlled by Lord Cowdray; the Royal Dutch Shell Trading and Transport Company, holding 1,000,000 acres in two blocks, in which Queen Wilhelmina and the Royal Family of Holland are interested, as are the Rothschilds; the Penn Mex Oil Company, owning 600,000 acres just south of Tampico, a Standard Oil concern.

Q.—Does Great Britain depend greatly on imports for raw material?

A.—She depends almost entirely upon them for everything except coal and iron. She produces about 5,000,000 tons of iron from her own ore, and about 4,500,000 from foreign ores; in addition, in ordinary times, she imported about 5,000,000 tons of iron and steel from abroad. She has to import all the copper she needs, and practically all the tin and lead. No cotton is grown in England, or rubber. Silk must all come from overseas, and

almost all the petroleum, too, must cross the water. Much wool is produced, but far more has to be imported, and there is, in ordinary times, very little timber hewn in the United Kingdom. Leather, in the form of hides and skins, comes from abroad, and immense quantities of oil-seeds, fats, gums, and the like, have to be imported. The value of the raw material brought into the country in 1913 was £281,000,000 ($1,400,000,000). In all, some £668,000,000 worth of foodstuffs and raw and semi-manufactured material went into the United Kingdom in 1913.

Q.—How many paper mills are there in Great Britain?

A.—In ordinary times there were 270 mills usually engaged in making paper. Many of these must have closed down owing to the shortage of supplies.

Q.—Does Great Britain ordinarily draw most of her wood pulp from Sweden?

A.—Roughly half. The rest comes from Norway and Canada. Lord Northcliffe owns large forests in Newfoundland, and has an up-to-date pulping plant not far from St. Johns. He turns the pulp into paper in his mills in England, however. By no means all the paper produced in Great Britain is made from wood pulp. Much of it is produced from esparte grass, huge quantities of which come from Algeria in ordinary times.

Q.—Has the English prohibition of wood pulp severely hit the Swedes?

A.—It must have done so. Before the war some 30,000 workers were employed in the wood-pulp mills, and since the struggle began the production of pulp should have increased materially, as the German supplies were no longer available for the world's markets.

Q.—How much wood pulp does Great Britain usually import from Sweden?

A.—About £1,500,000 ($7,500,000) worth annually.

Q.—Is wood pulp the principal material exported to Great Britain from Sweden?

A.—No. It comes sixth on the list. The main thing exported is timber. More than $50,000,000 worth is exported annually, $15,000,000 worth going to Great Britain. The other notable purchase from Sweden is butter. Nearly $10,000,000 worth is sent across the North Sea for British consumption.

Q.—What are the chief occupations of the English people?

A.—According to the census of 1901 the metal industries and agriculture each employed about the same number of people, viz: agriculture, 1,192,167; metal industries of every sort, 1,116,202. Textile manufactures gave occupation to 994,668, and of these 529,131 were employed in the cotton industries. Boots and shoes occupied 229,257. In the pottery and glass manufactures were 90,000. In mining there were 805,185.

Q.—Are English industries much localized?

A.—Yes. This is due to geographical conditions, and also to the distribution of raw materials. Thus the great china and pottery industries, though not absolutely limited to those districts, are largely situated in Staffordshire, where the city of Stoke and many of the contiguous towns actually bear the name of "The Potteries." The cotton industry belongs largely to South Lancashire, where Manchester and its great neighboring towns are the world-famed centers of industry. The industry has also expanded widely into adjacent parts of Cheshire, the West Riding of Yorkshire and Derbyshire. (*Encyclopaedia Britannica*). Coal deposits have been important factors in thus localizing the cotton industry, but the moist climate also has been a deciding element, as it is of great benefit for the work.

Q.—Where are England's metal working districts mainly?

A.—Chiefly near the coal and metal deposits of the island kingdom. Thus the Cleveland, Durham, and Furness districts have attracted many. The most famous locality, however, is the "Black Country," and Birmingham district of Staffordshire, Warwickshire and Worcester. Large amounts of iron and steel, however, are produced in the huge manufacturing areas of Lancashire and the West Riding of Yorkshire, where certain centers are noted, such as Sheffield for its cutlery. The London district has very large engineering interests, and Birmingham and Coventry are famed for their motor-building industries.

Q.—How much cotton does Egypt produce?

A.—The Nile yield is about 800,000,000 pounds. In a good year the crops might

possibly be increased by about 10 per cent, but this is the utmost that can be expected with the area under cultivation. It is said that the production could be increased by about 100 per cent if all possible irrigation works are executed in Egypt and in the Upper Nile region, but that result could not be attained for another 25 or 30 years. When it had been attained, however, the agricultural resources of the country would have been developed to their fullest extent, and the limit of yield would have been reached.

Q.—Does Australia lead the world in wool production?

A.—Yes. There are indications, however, that eventually the combined production of Argentine and Uruguay will be greater than hers. Uruguay is a territory where the merino flourishes as well as in Australia. There are said to be about 21,000,000 merinos in all in that country. There also are many in South Africa, but the South African wool is said not to be quite as good as Australian, though some of it brings almost as much in the English markets. Taking the production of 1912, we find that Australasia was responsible for 840,000,000 pounds of the world's wool clip. Argentina for 415,000,000 pounds, Russia for 380,000,000 pounds, the United States for 322,000,000 pounds, the United Kingdom for 145,000,000 pounds, Uruguay for 130,000,000, and South Africa for 112,000,000. In 1904 the wool clip in Argentina was only 330,000,000 pounds.

Q.—What was the first war tax on excess profits?

A.—Under the act of October 3, 1917, a tax was levied on the net incomes of individuals, partnerships, or corporations which (after certain permitted deductions) were in excess of certain percentages of the invested capital of such individuals, etc. The rates were as follows: 20 per cent of profits not in excess of 15 per cent of the invested capital; 25 per cent of profits, 15 per cent and not in excess of 20 per cent of invested capital; 35 per cent of profits, 20 per cent and not in excess of 25 per cent of invested capital; 45 per cent of profits, 25 per cent and not in excess of 33 per cent of invested capital; 60 per cent of profits, 33 per cent and better of invested capital. In addition, in the case of a trade or business (a term which includes the professions as well) having no invested capital or only a nominal capital, a tax of 8 per cent was levied on all net incomes, of individuals, above $6,000, or of corporations, above $3,000. Finally the tax of 12½ per cent which was levied by the act of September 8, 1916, on the net incomes of all persons, corporations, etc., manufacturing munitions, electric motor boats, submarines, etc., was reduced after January 1, to 10 per cent.

Q.—What was the first war tax on incomes?

A.—Under the act of October 3, 1917, new income taxes were imposed. The preceding law taxed the net incomes of individuals in excess of $3,000 for an unmarried man and $4,000 for a head of a family. The war tax bill reduced the exemption of unmarried persons to $1,000 and of heads of families to $2,000, but granted an additional exemption of $200 for each dependent child. The surtaxes on incomes of $5,000 and over were the same for all, as follows: Between $5,000 and $7,500, 1 per cent; $7,500 and $10,000, 2 per cent; $10,000 and $12,500, 3 per cent; $12,500 and $15,000, 4 per cent; $15,000 and $20,000, 5 per cent; $20,000 and $40,000, 8 per cent; $40,000 and $60,000, 12 per cent; $60,000 and $80,000, 17 per cent; $80,000 and $100,000, 22 per cent; $100,000 and $150,000, 27 per cent; $150,000 and $300,000, 42 per cent; $300,000 and $500,000, 46 per cent; $500,000 and $750,000, 50 per cent; $750,000 and $1,000,000, 55 per cent; $1,000,000 and $1,500,000, 61 per cent; $1,500,000 and $2,000,000, 62 per cent; over $2,000,000, 63 per cent.

Q.—What was the Trading with the Enemy Act?

A.—The Trading with the Enemy Act provided that a person who is "an enemy" or ally of enemy "doing business within the United States" may apply for a license to continue to do business in the United States. This act prohibited and imposed severe penalties on communicating with the enemy, but licenses could be granted for relief from the various "communications."

Q.—Who is officially an enemy of the United States?

A.—(a) An enemy, according to the Trading with the Enemy Act, is "Any individual, partnership, or other body of individuals of any nationality, resident within the territory (including that occupied by the military and naval forces) of any nation with which the United States is at war, or resident outside the United States and doing business within such territory, and any corporation incorporated within such territory of any nation with which the United States is at war or incorporated within any country other than the United States and doing business within such territory.

(b) The government of any nation with which the United States is at war, or any political or municipal subdivision thereof, or any officer, official, agent, or agency thereof.

(c) Such other individuals, or body of class of individuals, as may be natives, citizens, or subjects of any nation with which the United States is at war, other than citizens of the United States, wherever resident, or wherever doing business as the President, if he shall find the safety of the United States or the successful prosecution of the war shall so require, may, by proclamation, include within the term "enemy."

Q.—What is a person holding property of an enemy expected to do?

A.—Any person in the United States who holds or has custody or control of

any property himself or in behalf of an enemy or an ally of an enemy is expected to report the fact to the Alien Property Custodian by written statement under oath, containing such particulars as such custodian may require.

Q.—Is a citizen of the United States bound by a contract with a citizen of one of the Central Powers?

A.—Any contract entered into prior to the beginning of the war, between any citizen of the United States and any citizen of the Central Powers, the terms of which provide for delivery during or after the war, may be abrogated by serving a thirty days' notice in writing, upon the Alien Property Custodian of his district.

Q.—What happens to money belonging to enemies of the United States seized under the Enemy Alien Act?

A.—All money paid to the Alien Property Custodian belonging to the enemy is deposited in the Treasury of the United States and invested by the Secretary of the Treasury in United States bonds. At the end of the war, any claim of an enemy alien or ally of an enemy to any money or other property received or held by the Alien Property Custodian or deposited in the United States Treasury shall be settled as Congress directs. The President and the officials whom he appoints to assist him in administering the Trading with the Enemy Act have very broad authority to seize all property of whatever kind and hold it during the period of the war.

Q.—What was President Wilson's Cabinet when war began?

A.—Secretary of State, Robert Lansing; Secretary of the Treasury, William Gibbs McAdoo; Secretary of War, Newton Diehl Baker; Attorney General, Thomas Watt Gregory; Secretary of the Navy, Josephus Daniels; Secretary of the Interior, Franklin Knight Lane; Secretary of Agriculture, David Franklin Houston; Secretary of Commerce, William Cox Redfield; Secretary of Labor, William Bauchop Wilson.

Q.—Were women called in by the American government to help?

A.—A group of 10 representative women of the United States was appointed by the Council of National Defense, April 21, 1917, to coordinate and centralize the war work of women. The members are Dr. Anna Howard Shaw, of New York, chairman; Miss Ida Tarbell, of New York, vice-chairman; Mrs. Philip N. Moore, of St. Louis, secretary; Mrs. Stanley McCormick, of Boston, treasurer; Mrs. Josiah E. Cowles, of California; Miss Maud Wetmore, of Rhode Island; Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt, of New York; Mrs. Antoinette Funk, of Illinois; Mrs. Joseph R. Lamar, of Georgia; and Miss Agnes Nestor, of Illinois. The organization has State divisions in 48 States, and acts as a mouthpiece of the Government, sending messages to women, stimulating patriotic service, and supplying a channel for effective prosecution of war work. There are 10 departments or sub-committees finding their counterpart in State, county, and civic units, namely, registration, food production and home economics, food administration, women in industry, child welfare, maintenance of existing social service agencies, health and recreation, education, Liberty Loan, and home and foreign relief. Headquarters at 1814 N Street NW., Washington, D. C., is clearing house for war activities through organizations and through individuals.

Q.—Did Congress assume any part in the question of peace terms?

A.—Congress, by common consent, and with the undoubted approval of the nation, avoided discussion for a considerable period after the Declaration of War, and left the matter entirely in the hands of the President.

In the session of Congress which passed the Declaration of War, a few sporadic attempts were made to begin discussion but they went no further than isolated speeches and resolutions, which were tabled.

The next session of Congress also refrained from any discussion until after the famous Message by President Wilson outlining peace terms and war aims. On January 31, 1918, Senators Borah of Idaho and Owen of Oklahoma each offered resolutions covering the subject. The resolutions were supported by speeches, and were referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs.

These may be held to have been the first actual and really important steps by Congress to reassume its share of activity.

Q.—What was our reply to the Peace Appeal of the Pope in August, 1917?

A.—President Wilson's answer pointed out that the plan proposed would mean a recuperation of Germany's strength, and that much as we desired a just peace we could not take the word of her rulers as a guarantee of anything durable.

He went on: "The purposes of the United States in this war are known to the whole world, to every people to whom the truth has been permitted to come. They do not need to be stated again. We seek no material advantage of any kind. We believe that the intolerable wrongs done in this war by the brutal and furious power of the Imperial Government ought to be repaired, but not at the expense of the sovereignty of any people—rather a vindiction of the sovereignty both of those that are weak and of those that are strong. Punitive damages, the dismemberment of empires, the establishment of selfish and exclusive economic leagues, we deem inexpedient and in the end worse than futile, no proper basis for a peace of any kind, least of all for an enduring peace. That must be based upon justice and fairness and the common rights of mankind."

Q.—What is the Monroe Doctrine?

A.—Washington recommended that the United States should avoid entangling itself in the politics of Europe. That policy has been consistently followed, and in our own time was reaffirmed formally when the United States delegates signed The Hague Conventions with the proviso that nothing contained therein should be so construed as "to require the United States to depart from its traditional policy of not intruding upon, interfering with, or entangling itself in, the political questions, or policy, or internal administration of any foreign State, nor shall anything contained in the said Conventions be construed to imply a relinquishment by the United States of its traditional attitude towards purely American questions." This "traditional attitude" is the second great American principle, ranking next after Washington's policy. It is known as the Monroe Doctrine because it was officially and fully declared for the first time by President Monroe in 1823. At that time it was feared in America that the combination of European Powers known as the Holy Alliance meant to interfere in South America to restore the Spanish colonies to Spain, these having asserted their independence. The Monroe Doctrine declared that there must be no intervention by foreign powers in the political affairs of independent American States, and also warned off European Powers desirous of founding colonies on the American continents. Originally aimed to prevent the overthrow of independent republics, the Doctrine has become a permanent part of the foreign policy of the United States, and has come to be regarded as a sort of general protectorate over the whole of the New World. In brief, it means that the United States will not tolerate any European interference whatever in any part of the American continent.

Q.—What was the famous Senate bill for creating a War cabinet?

A.—It was a bill made public by the Senate Committee on Military Affairs establishing a War Cabinet to be composed of "three distinguished citizens of demonstrated ability," to be appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate. Its powers were to be very great, both as to advice, investigation, and control.

Q.—What was the attitude of the President regarding the war cabinet proposal?

A.—He objected unqualifiedly and sharply. He declared his objection to any form of interference with the executive conduct of the war.

Q.—When did Secretary Baker make his famous statement before the Senate?

A.—He made this statement before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs on January 28, 1918. It followed charges made by Senator Chamberlain that the war department had failed to do all that it should have done. The Secretary of War had appeared some time before to testify before the Committee, and his statements then had lacked circumstantiality and fullness. The statement of January 28 was one of the most elaborate ever made by an officer of government in this country, and it gave the nation a most vivid and clear picture of the magnitude of the problem confronting the government and people, and of the vast undertakings and efforts that were necessary to conduct the war.

Q.—What was the gist of the secretary's statement?

A.—That while errors had been made, and shortcomings existed, the work of

the War Department as a whole had been extraordinarily good and successful.

Q.—When was the post of Surveyor-General of Army Purchases created, and why?

A.—Secretary Baker announced this appointment on January 25 after Senator Chamberlain's public criticisms. The officer thus created was appointed to be in charge of the procurement and production of all supplies by the five army bureaus, viz., Ordnance, Quartermaster, Signal, Engineer, and Medical. It was to be his duty to co-ordinate such purchases and properly relate the same to industry to the end that the army program be developed under a comprehensive plan which should best utilize the resources of the country.

Q.—Was an army officer appointed to the new post of Surveyor-General?

A.—A civilian was appointed—Edward R. Stettinius, who had been in practical charge of purchases for the Allies during the war while the United States was neutral. He was a member of the firm of J. P. Morgan and Company, having entered it about two years before. He was born in St. Louis in 1865, was graduated from the St. Louis University, and entered business in 1883. From 1906 to 1915 he was president of the Diamond Match Company.

Q.—What new American governmental agencies were created?

A.—Leading agencies were: shipping board, food administration, fuel administration, war industries board, raw materials board, aircraft production board, Allies' purchasing board, war trade board and a director-general of railroads. There was also a board controlling priority of freight shipments.

Q.—What acts, not financial, were passed to authorize war measures?

A.—Following the declaration of war (April 6, 1917), Congress passed, first, an act granting the President authority to take over enemy merchant vessels in American ports. On May 18 there was passed the Selective Draft Act, authorizing the drafting of American citizens into a great National Army, and also bringing the Regular Army to full war strength, besides placing the various National Guards (armed militia) of the States into the Federal service.

Q.—Did other acts confer further authority on the President?

A.—An act, called the "espionage act," gave the Federal Government immensely large powers over the people, and incidentally authorized the President to lay embargoes on exports at his discretion, an authorization that gave the Government enormous powers of control over the nation's and the world's commerce. Then followed a food and fuel bill for exercising control over those great economic necessities. There were also the act regulating trade with the enemy and the law for insuring men in the military and naval service of the country.

Q.—What was the early effect of government operation of the railroads?

A.—After a month of government operation the figures showed that there had been a decided reduction in accumulations of export freight at the seaports, caused by the increased fuelling of ships and by the embargoes placed on certain kinds of shipment.

More than 4,000 freight cars thus were emptied and released for further use. The Regional Director of Railroads received the following detailed report showing the car situation at six North Atlantic ports on January 1, 1918, when the government took the roads out of private control, and on February 1, after a month of government control:

Ports.	Jan. 1.	Feb. 1.	Dec.	P. C.
Boston	1,190	998	192	16.14
New York....	24,971	19,723	5,248	24.02
Philadelphia ..	3,531	3,307	224	6.34
Baltimore	7,164	5,878	1,286	17.95
Newport News.	1,653	1,284	369	22.32
Norfolk	2,592	2,403	189	7.29
All ports ...	41,101	33,593	7,508	18.27

Q.—What is the Council of National Defense?

A.—It was established by Congress in 1916, and consists of: Secretary of War, Newton D. Baker, chairman; Secretary of the Navy, Josephus Daniels; Secretary of the Interior, Franklin K. Lane; Secretary of Agriculture, David F. Houston; Secretary of Commerce, William C. Redfield; Secretary of Labor, William B. Wilson.

Its function as specified in the act of Congress creating it is stated as the "creation of relations which will render possible in time of need the immediate concentration and utilization of the resources of the nation."

Q.—Was there any addition to it?

A.—Yes. The act establishing it provided for an Advisory Commission to be nominated by the council and appointed by the President and for such subordinate bodies as the council saw fit to organize "for its assistance in special investigations." The members of the Advisory Commission were originally:

Daniel Willard, chairman, Transportation and Communication;

Howard E. Coffin, Munitions and Manufacturing (including standardization) and Industrial Relations;

Julius Rosenwald, Supplies (including clothing), etc.;

Bernard M. Baruch, Raw Materials, Minerals, and Metals;

Dr. Hollis Godfrey, Engineering and Education;

Samuel Gompers, Labor, including conservation of health and welfare of workers;

Dr. Franklin Martin, Medicine and Surgery, including general sanitation.

Much of the advisory committee's work has been absorbed by other newer bodies such as the War Industries Board, etc.

Q.—Who purchases supplies for the United States Navy?

A.—The Bureau of Supplies and Accounts purchases stores and issues all supplies for the naval establishment. Paymaster-General Samuel McGowan is the head of this Bureau.

Q.—Was January, 1918, really the coldest month on record?

A.—It was for a great many regions in the United States. It was the coldest month on record for such cities as New York, for instance, where the daily average was 9 degrees below the average for 38 previous years.

Q.—Is America rebuilding the ruined French towns?

A.—In the Alsace district the Americans are assisting notably. Noyon has been adopted by the city of Washington, and is being rebuilt by contributions from the people of that city. The American fund for French wounded has taken full charge of the hamlet of Behericourt, and the Comtesse de Chabrannes has undertaken to rebuild the hamlet of Maucourt. The village of Vitrimont in the Vosges region has been rebuilt by Mrs. Crocker, of California. The place was a desert when she began, but her representative found herself at the head of a small army of eager villagers, who undertook the heaviest tasks of house-building under her leadership. Already a church and rows of attractive two-story houses have risen. Houses, farms, public buildings are all erected according to a plan which gives them a logical grouping.

Q.—Did the stock markets rise in the early part of 1918 because of peace rumors?

A.—There were many minor causes that served to account for advance in market quotations, but presumably these minor causes would not have been sufficient in themselves. While it is not safe to assert unequivocally that the January rise in prices was a reflection of belief that peace was prognosticated, it is certain that with the beginning of actual talk about a possible settlement of the great war, a quiet, steady, slow advance began in prices, and that it continued daily with very few fluctuations.

Q.—Why is America nicknamed Uncle Sam?

A.—After the declaration of war with England in 1812, Elbert Anderson of New York, a contractor, visited Troy, where he purchased a large quantity of provisions. The government inspectors at that place were Ebenezer and Samuel Wilson. The latter was universally known as "Uncle Sam" and the articles passed by him were marked "E. A.—U. S." A humorous fellow, being asked the meaning of the initials, said he did not know, unless it meant "Elbert Anderson and Uncle Sam," alluding to "Uncle Sam" Wilson. The joke became a stock topic and thus "Uncle Sam" was finally adopted as a nickname. It is, accurately speaking, a nickname for the United States Government, not for the nation.

Q.—Does America intern alien enemies?

A.—America has adopted a magnanimous and tolerant attitude toward the subjects of hostile States who are now in this country. A Presidential proclamation issued April 6, 1917, assured them

that as long as they refrain from acts of hostility they would be left undisturbed.

This attitude has been maintained. During the months following the declaration of war, alien enemies (or, to speak more accurately, enemy aliens) were prohibited from entering certain districts, such as water-fronts, camps, etc. A number, guilty of inimical acts or suspected as being potentially dangerous, were interned. In February, 1918, there began a general registration of enemy aliens, with finger-print records, etc.

Q.—Has America the right to intern all enemy aliens, even if they behave themselves?

A.—Yes. Every country engaged in war has the right to imprison all subjects of the hostile country, if it chooses to do so. They may even be put to work under conditions prescribed by The Hague Conventions. The treatment of enemy aliens in any belligerent country is simply a matter of policy.

Q.—Is it permitted for a belligerent to purchase weapons of war from neutrals without let or hindrance?

A.—The laws of neutrality permit this to be done without any interference on the part of neutral Governments. French agents bought revolvers, etc., in Great Britain during the Franco-German war, and the British Government answered the German protests with the statement that no purely mercantile transactions could be considered a violation of neutrality. The Allies purchased huge quantities of war material from the United States, and in reply to Austria's protests President Wilson took the same point of view as did the British Government during the Franco-Prussian war.

Q.—Is German taught in all the public schools throughout the United States?

A.—According to statistics compiled late in 1917 by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior, after inquiries had been sent to the superintendents of many of the elementary schools in the United States, there are only nineteen cities out of 163 of 25,000 population or over reporting to the Department of Education that teach foreign languages below the seventh grade.

Q.—What proportion does German bear in relation to other foreign languages?

A.—In twelve of these cities German is the foreign language taught. In three cities German, French, and Spanish are all taught in the elementary grades. In one city German, Italian, and Polish, while in the three remaining cities the languages taught to the elementary school children are French and Spanish, alone or in combination. In a few cities the foreign language is taught in all grades, from the first to the eighth; in others the instruction does not begin until the fifth or sixth grade. The number of elementary school children taking German ranges from 40 in one city to 22,000 in another.

Q.—What is Pan-Americanism?

A.—For a long time there has been manifested a stronger and stronger feeling that the American republics constitute a group which is more closely bound together than other nations of the world, because of their common ideals and common aspirations—a feeling which has undoubtedly been emphasized by their geographical isolation from other countries. It is the bond of sympathy which draws together the twenty-one republics of our western world and makes of them the American family of nations.

Q.—Did the Government send money to Americans caught in the warring countries?

A.—Yes. The battleship *Tennessee* went in August, 1914, with $2,500,000 in gold for the relief of American citizens in Europe. This money was distributed through the American legations.

Q.—Has our Government an authorized censorship?

A.—Yes. The Trading with the Enemy Bill, passed September 12, 1917, includes a provision for censorship of mail and telegraphic communications with foreign countries. Also, it has an amendment requiring German-language newspapers to publish an English translation of all comment on the war.

SOME PAST CAMPAIGNS

Q.—When was the battle of Waterloo fought?

A.—It was fought on Sunday, June 18, 1815, between Napoleon, with 72,000 men (246 guns), and Wellington, with 67,700 Allies (156 guns). The day was decided by the arrival of Blücher with 50,000 Prussians (104 guns). There were in all only 24,000 British on the field.

Q.—Where is Waterloo?

A.—It is about 10 miles south by east from Brussels. Waterloo is a very small and unimportant place in itself, with only about 3,000 inhabitants.

Q.—Was there a battle of Waterloo in the present war?

A.—No. It was not a strategic point. Napoleon and Wellington fought their battle there only because the British army had concentrated on Brussels. In the present war, no stand was made near Brussels and the Germans entered unopposed.

Q.—What were the losses in the battle of Waterloo?

A.—The British, who only numbered 24,000, lost 2,000 killed and 5,000 wounded. The Allies lost altogether, including these, 4,200 killed, 14,500 wounded, and 4,230 missing. The French loss was more than 40,000 killed, wounded and prisoners, but accurate details have never been obtained.

Q.—How old was Napoleon at Waterloo?

A.—He was only 46. Wellington was the same age; so were Ney and Soult. Crouchy was 40, Murat 44. Nelson died at 47. All these men had achieved their greatest fame before they reached 40. Alexander the Great died when he was 33. Hannibal was 30 when he crossed the Alps. Sir Francis Drake, with a great career behind him, was 48 when he met the Armada.

Q.—Who said that "God is on the side of the biggest battalions"?

A.—Napoleon. It was he also who said that an army "marched on its belly." Nowadays he would, no doubt, slightly alter both these trite remarks, and, instead, would say that "God is on the side of the biggest factories," and that an army "marches on petrol."

Q.—Has war ever produced so much hatred as this one?

A.—It is certainly true that all wars have produced hatred and unfairness towards enemies.

But the most judicial minded observer cannot fail to notice some essential differences in this world struggle. In no previous war have great neutral nations, thousands of miles away from the conflict, been forced, one after the other, to take up arms because of the indiscriminate ruthlessness of one of the combatants.

There was certainly no hate of Germany, for instance, in the United States before August, 1914.

The feeling which animates most of the civilized world today against the Teutonic Powers, from Siam to Brazil, is the creation of their deeds. Slowly, and in many cases with extreme reluctance, all the other peoples have been forced by Germany's acts to the conviction that her whole theory of development meant the destruction of everything that civilization most cherishes.

Q.—Who were the Huns?

A.—They were a people of Tartar or Ugrain stock, who, three centuries before Christ, appear to have dominated the whole of what is now known as Siberia. They first appeared west of the Volga in 374, and proceeded to attack the then all-powerful Gothic Empire. They were soon supreme between the Danube and the Volga, and expanded through into Persia and Syria. In 446 the mighty "Scourge of God," Attila, began his tremendous drive to the west. Civilization collapsed before his onslaught, and five years later he was outside Paris. There, at the tremendous battle of Chalons-sur-Marne, the combined armies of the Romans, under Aetius, and the Visigoths, under Theodoric, defeated him and saved France.

Q.—Why are the Germans called Huns?

A.—It is a term of opprobrium, and has nothing to do with their race, for the Germans are of entirely different stock. The cruelties and barbarisms of the Huns, combined with their great bravery and ferocity, gave a terror to their name,

which has lasted to this day. A few of them are said to have settled in northern France, and a few in Central Europe. They gave their name to Hungary, which is, however, now peopled by a different race. They were slowly assimilated by the peoples around them, or retired across the Volga, whence they came.

Q.—Which are regarded as the greatest battles of the world?

A.—According to Creasy, there were fifteen "decisive" battles—that is, battles which decided the fate of nations and perhaps of the world. The early ones were: Marathon, where the Greeks defeated the Persians, B.C. 490, and stopped the Asiatic invasion. Syracuse, where, B.C. 413, the Athenian invaders of Sicily were routed. Arbela, where Alexander the Great finally crushed the Persians, B.C. 331. Metaurus, where the Romans defeated Hasdrubal, who was hastening to the aid of the Carthaginians under Hannibal, B.C. 207. (As a military achievement, Hannibal's victory over the Romans at Cannae was much greater, but the victory at Metaurus was the beginning of the end of Carthage.) Teutoburg, where, in A.D. 9, the German Arminius defeated the Roman legions under Varus, and freed Germany from the Roman yoke.

Q.—Was one of the decisive famous battles fought in Chalons, France?

A.—Chalons, where the last of the Roman generals, Aetius and Theodoric, King of the Visigoths, defeated the Huns under Attila, "The Scourge of God," A.D. 451. After Chalons, the Hunnish invasion ebbed, and Attila's vast empire crumbled away after his death, two years later. Then came another great battle in France, the battle of Tours, where Charles Martel, Duke of the Austrasian Franks, defeated the Saracens under Abderrahman, in 732, and freed France and Europe from Moslem domination. After these came Hastings, where Norman William defeated Saxon Harold, in 1066, and laid the foundations for the present British Empire, and Orleans, where in 1429 Jeanne d'Arc defeated the English and delivered France.

Q.—What was the greatest sea battle?

A.—The fight with the Spanish Armada, which, in 1588, was destroyed by the British fleet. Spain's dominion of the sea was broken, and after that her mighty empire began to crumble.

Q.—What were the other battles?

A.—Blenheim, where, in 1704, Marlborough, commanding German, British and Dutch troops, defeated the French and thus destroyed the vast fabric of power built up by Louis XIV. It is interesting to recall that the Irish Brigade, fighting for the French, almost turned defeat into victory. Pultowa, where Peter the Great defeated Charles of Sweden in 1709. This victory marked the entry of Russia into history as a European power, and with it began the decline of Sweden. It also marked the beginning of rivalry between Slav and Teuton, one of the deeper excuses for the world-devastating struggle of our day. Saratoga, where, in 1777, the Americans, under Gates and Arnold, defeated the British under Burgoyne and captured his army. Though few men were engaged, the victory was immediately important. Valmy, where the armies of the French Republic won their first victory in 1792. The battle saved Paris and the French democracy. Waterloo, where, in 1815, the British, Dutch, Brunswickers and Belgians, under Wellington, and the Prussians, under Blücher, defeated Napoleon, and completed the destruction of the mighty empire he had built up. At that time a von Bulow, by the way, commanded one of the Prussian army corps.

Q.—How do numbers of ancient armies compare with to-day?

A.—There is no comparison at all. Never before in the history of the world had armies so been used. The largest armies of modern times before this war were the American armies of the Civil War. When the Civil War ended there were 2,000,000 Northerners and 1,000,000 Southerners under arms. In the Franco-Prussian War the Germans had 1,124,000 soldiers, the French 1,000,000. At Waterloo, Napoleon had 72,000 men, Wellington 67,700, and Blücher 50,000. Napoleon's Grande Armée, which invaded Russia, crossed the border 600,000 strong. Only 20,000 men returned. In ancient times Hannibal invaded Italy with 60,000 men. Alexander the Great conquered the known world with 50,000. Charles Martel smashed the Saracens and saved France from Mohammedan domination with an army of 20,000. The Turks were defeated by the brilliant Pole, Pan Sobieski, before the gates of Vienna, in 1683, saving Europe.

THE RED CROSS AND OTHERS

Q.—Just what is the Red Cross?

A.—The American Red Cross is an association of more than 3,600,000 Americans, forming local chapters, branches, and auxiliaries and governed by a central committee in Washington, D. C. Its accounts are audited by the War Department. Any resident or citizen of the United States may become a member by sending his address and dues to the American Red Cross, Washington, D. C., or to the chapter in his neighborhood. It is a relief clearing house, permanent, responsible, and experienced. It is a semi-governmental agency for the collection and distribution of money and supplies for relief purposes.

Q.—How much money has the Red Cross collected?

A.—Approximately $250,000,000 had been collected to July 1, 1981.

Q.—How much money was collected in the 1918 summer drive?

A.—About $175,000,000.

Q.—How much money was spent?

A.—Approximately $100,000,000 up to July, 1918.

Q.—Where and how was the money spent?

A.—In broad outlines, money had been spent as follows up to the nearest date available in September, 1918—In the United States about 30 millions, apportioned thus: Home Relief, $5,000,000; Base Hospitals, $20,000,000; miscellaneous, $5,000,000, etc.

In foreign countries about 80 millions, apportioned thus: Italy, $20,000,000; France, $37,000,000; Belgium, $3,000,000; Russia, $800,000; Servia, $1,200,000; Miscellaneous, $8,000,000, etc.

Q.—What did the Home Relief Service do?

A.—In September, 1918, the War Council of the American Red Cross reported that more than 300,000 families of American men in service had been relieved of money troubles, legal difficulties, family worries or of depressing loneliness by the Home Service of the Red Cross. This branch had 50,000 men and women serving on its 10,000 Home Service committees. It had reached into remote communities where there had never been organized social effort before. It had established the closest co-operation in the larger centers of population with the organized agencies of public welfare. It was spreading a doctrine of intelligent substantial neighborliness on behalf of the fighters' families and backing it with an expenditure of over $400,000 a month.

Q.—Does the Home Service help soldiers, too?

A.—It did wonderful work by keeping soldiers in touch with their families and saving them from any worry about those at home. Twenty or more inquiries about the welfare of soldiers' families were sent over from the army in France every day by cable in September, 1918, and 100 more came in the daily mail to national headquarters. The soldier could ask no service for their families that the Red Cross did not try to perform. The effect on the men's morale was magnificent.

Q.—What did the Red Cross do for the French civilians?

A.—The two largest items of expenditure in the work of the American Red Cross among the civilians up to autumn, 1918, was for relief work and reconstruction of villages in devastated areas and the relief of thousands of refugees from areas occupied by the German armies, including necessary housing and living conditions for 11,000 families. These two items alone aggregated $5,557,605.75.

Q.—How many workers were there in France in 1918?

A.—Nearly 3,000 persons represented the American Red Cross in France for work among soldiers and civilians in autumn, 1918.

Q.—How many Red Cross nurses were in service?

A.—Up to August, 1918, the American Red Cross had sent 13,311 nurses overseas.

Q.—What are Red Cross activities?

A.—The public's money given to the Red Cross is being spent in France and other countries for the following purposes: Infirmaries and rest stations for the sick; disinfecting rooms and dormitories for soldiers; hospital equipment, medicines and dressings (nearly 4,000 of the 6,000 hospitals in France are receiving supplies from the American Red Cross); food for sick and needy; ambulances for the wounded; motor trucks which make the American Red Cross independent of the overburdened railways in France; medical research; building of homes and schools for orphans and helpless; relief of destitute families; to fight tuberculosis, the deadliest enemy of the civil population of France; general relief work in Belgium, and other purposes.

Q.—How much money goes for expenses?

A.—Figures in 1917 showed that no expenses of administration in the United States were paid for out of the Red Cross War Fund. All administration was more than met by membership dues. Thus, every dollar contributed for relief went to relief.

Q.—How many national organizations were officially recognized by the Government for work among the soldiers?

A.—Seven—Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association, National Catholic War Council, Jewish Welfare Board, American Library Association, War Camp Community Service and Salvation Army. In September, 1918, President Wilson announced his judgment that these seven should engage in one united appeal for funds. The drive, which was set for November, 1918, was for $170,500,000.

Q.—How was this apportioned?

A.—Young Men's Christian Association, $100,000,000; Young Women's Christian Association, $15,000,000; National Catholic War Council (including the work of the Knights of Columbus and special war activities for women), $30,000,000; Jewish Welfare Board, $3,500,000; American Library Association, $3,500,000; War Camp Community Service, $15,000,000; Salvation Army, $3,500,000.

Q.—What is the Young Men's Christian Association?

A.—An international and interdenominational organization of men for Christian fellowship and uplift. It was founded in 1844, and has an approximate membership of 1,500,000. Its National War Work Council of 10,000 workers covered every camp cantonment, naval and military station and seaport in the United States, and wherever American troops were stationed abroad. "The Y. M. C. A. follows the flag." In addition, the Council maintained its activities in practically every Allied Army except that of Great Britain.

Principal war activities: Co-operation with military authorities in maintaining morale of men (1) by wholesome amusements, (2) educational training, elementary to highest branches, (3) broad religious program, non-sectarian and non-propagandic, alike for Protestant, Catholic and Jew.

By September 1, 1918, the War Council had raised approximately $55,000,000, and about 6,000 men and women were serving overseas.

Q.—What is the Young Women's Christian Association?

A.—An international organization of women of all Protestant creeds for moral and social uplift and assistance to women everywhere—especially working women. Its membership is about 1,000,000. The organization was founded in 1865. It used all its resources to meet the special needs of girls and women effected by the war. In the United States: Emergency housing for women in government work; Hostess Houses near Army and Navy camps for women relatives and friends of soldiers; a bureau to train foreign-born women for interpreters in camps and reconstruction work in their native countries; employment registries and War Service centers for girls in war industries; a bureau of Social Morality; work agencies in colored communities affected by the war. In Europe: Social workers, recreation leaders, physical directors, hostess houses, cafeterias, and recreation centers for American nurses, Signal Corps women, etc; housing and cafeteria and club service for French women working in munition factories, etc.

In September, 1918, about 1,200 workers, including 93 in France and 25 in Russia, were in war centers, camps, etc. 2,800 more were helping to mobilize the woman power of the nation. About $5,000,000 had been raised.

Q.—What are the Knights of Columbus?

A.—A Catholic fraternal organization with 420,000 members in the United States, Canada and Mexico. Its buildings here and abroad are open at all times to all soldiers and all sailors regardless of race, color or creed. Its motto is "Everybody Welcome and Everything Free." In September, 1918, about 1,000 men and women were actively engaged in war work. There were 502 secretaries in training camps and cantonments in the United States and 330 workers in France and Italy. At that date 524 buildings were completed in 100 camps and contonments in the United States. In Europe, 45 buildings and a special motor service for American soldiers were maintained. The principal aim was to provide social, recreational and educational facilities and to assist the spiritual welfare of those who desired it. It provided soldiers in the actual fighting with tobacco, chocolate, soap and other articles not furnished by the Government. No charge was made. Up to September, 1918, $11,249,529 had had been collected. Six principal officers of this organization with six other prominent members of the Catholic Church sit as Executive Committee for the National Catholic War Council, which consists of 14 Catholic Archbishops representing 100 dioceses, each of which has its own local war council under its own bishop.

Q.—What is the Jewish Welfare Board?

A.—A "Win the War" organization helping the Government build up the morale of more than one hundred thousand Jewish men in Army and Navy. It was created in the spring of 1917 by joint action of representatives from some ten or twelve national Jewish organizations. (1) It sends trained workers to camps, contonments, forts and naval stations for recreational and spiritual needs of all men in uniform. (2) Erects for their welfare, buildings in camps with rest and writing rooms, libraries with English, Yiddish and Hebrew literature, victrolas, pianos, etc. (3) Conducts religious services on Friday evenings, all holidays and special occasions with aid of visiting and resident rabbis. (4) Personal service, such as looking after the welfare of parents and relatives, etc.

It covered about fifty camps in United States in September, 1918, and more buildings were continually being authorized. Headquarters had been opened in September, 1918, in Paris at 41 Boulevard Haussman. In London, a Hospitality Center was opened. More than two hundred rabbis, business men, social and layworkers were at work. The budget called for $5,000,000 in September, 1918.

Q.—What is the American Library Association?

A.—It was organized in 1876 to promote the interests of libraries and improve library conditions in America. At the request of the Training Camp Activities Commission in 1917, it assumed the care for all reading matter in camps and naval and military stations. The work was organized as the Library War Service, with Dr. Herbert Putnam, librarian of the Library of Congress, as General Director. More than 250 trained librarians were in the camps in September, 1918. Up to August 1, 1918, there had been spent $1,014,076.61. Over 3,000,000 books had been distributed. 828,000 books had been shipped overseas, 2,662,550 gift books placed in service and 540,833 books, largely technical, had been purpurchased. The most popular books were fiction for recreational reading. Technical books, military and naval books were most requested and most largely supplied.

Q.—What is the War Camp Community Service?

A.—An organization of men and women in near-camp communities all over the United States to provide lodging, canteens, entertainment and amusement for soldiers on leave. It ministers to the physical needs and morale of soldiers when outside of the camps, and assists the civilian populations of towns near camps to organize hospitality centers for soldiers on leave and visiting relatives. The budget in September, 1918, called for $15,000,000 and there were 539 paid workers besides thousands of volunteers.

Q.—What is the Salvation Army?

A.—An organization of men and women of all races, creeds and color, for the purpose of Rescue Mission Work among the unfortunate everywhere. Founded in 1865. Membership on September 1, 1918, many millions in 63 countries all over the earth. It did work just behind the lines, ministering to the fighters by supplying food and hot drinks and holding religious services. By September 1, 1918, $2,485,000 had been raised, and 1,210 men and women were at the fronts.

WHO'S WHO IN ROYALTY

Q.—Is Belgium's king the son of Leopold?

A.—Albert I (born 1875), King of the Belgians, came to the throne December 23, 1909, in succession to his uncle, Leopold II. Becoming heir apparent at the age of 17 by the death of his elder brother, he passed through the educational steps regularly marked out for Belgian royalty—the military school, extensive travels, participation as member of the Senate in national politics.

Q.—How long has the Kaiser ruled?

A.—William (Wilhelm) II, King of Prussia and German Emperor, has ruled since June 18, 1888. William II's grandfather, William I, achieved German unity, established the German Empire, and greatly influenced the ideals of his grandson. William II's mother was the eldest daughter of Queen Victoria of England. At his accession he declared to the army: "So we are bound together—I and the army—so we are born for one another, and so we shall hold together indissolubly, whether, as God wills it, we are to have peace or storm." After forcing Bismarck's resignation on March 18, 1890, William II telegraphed to the Grand Duke of Weimar: "To me has fallen the post of officer of the watch upon the ship of state. We shall keep the old course; and now full steam ahead!" Endowed with a restless mind and extraordinary energy, he considered himself the final authority on art, music, history, and the future of Germany. Beyond a question, his conception of the latter was that it must some day dominate the world commercially, politically and artistically—and he was to dominate Germany.

Q.—How old is he?

A.—He was born Jan. 27, 1859, and became Emperor June 15, 1888.

Q.—Are the Hohenzollerns an ancient dynasty?

A.—Very old, although it was not until 1701 that one of the family became King of Prussia. The castle of Hohenzollern is said to have been built early in the ninth century, but the first historical mention of the family was when Burkhard and Wezil, counts of Zollern, were killed in 1061. A direct descendant of Burkhard became Burgrave of Nuremburg in 1192. The division of the House of Hohenzollern dates from the sons of this Conrad, who divided his lands between them. The present Emperor of Germany belongs to the younger branch, the King of Roumania to the elder. On the whole, the Burgraves of Nuremburg were good rulers, although they took their full share in the turbulent doings of the Middle Ages. They appear to have encouraged commerce and protected the Jews. Having inherited Brandenburg, Frederic in 1427 sold his right as Burgrave to the town of Nuremburg, and from that time the family of Hohenzollern is identical with that of Brandenburg, until 1701, when the Elector Frederick became King of Prussia.

Q.—Is it true that Emperor William II. was appointed Admiral of the English fleet?

A.—Yes. On August 5, 1889, he was created Admiral of the English fleet by Queen Victoria.

Q.—How many sisters has the Kaiser, and to whom are they married?

A.—He has four sisters. The two eldest and the youngest are married to German princes. The third, Sophie, is the wife of King Constantine of Greece. He has only one brother, Prince Heinrich. The Kaiser has six sons and one daughter, who recently married the Duke of Brunswick.

Q.—When did George V ascend the throne?

A.—George V (born 1865), the present King of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British lands beyond the seas, came to the throne at the death of his father, Edward VII, in 1910.

Q.—What was the family name of King George V before he changed it to Windsor?

A.—King George I was a Guelph, and as his dynasty still reigns in England King George V presumably is held to be a

Guelph also. The descent, however, came through the female line—Queen Victoria—whose husband, Prince Albert, was a member of the Wettin family, from which many of the Royal Houses of Europe have sprung. Had he not been of royal blood, King George V would be regarded therefore as a Wettin, not as a Guelph.

It is interesting to note that the name Guelph was associated more particularly with Italy than with Germany, and for centuries the feud between this house and the Ghibellines raged throughout northern Italy. In fact, Guelph is held to be the Italianized form of Welf, and Ghibelline is the Italian name for Waiblingen. The feud is said to have originated in 1140 in a war between Conrad III, King of Germany, and Welf, Count of Bavaria, whose soldiers used the battle-cry, "Hie Welf." To this the King's men replied with the shout of "Hie Waiblingen," one of the titles of Conrad, who resided at a castle of that name.

Q.—How did the present Austrian Emperor succeed to the throne?

A.—The Archduke Charles Francis Joseph became Charles I, Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, on the death of his great-uncle, Emperor Francis Joseph, on November 21, 1916. He is the eldest son of the late Emperor's nephew, Otto, the younger brother of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, murdered at Serajevo on June 28, 1914. Charles I married, in 1911, Princess Zita, of the Bourbon House of Parma, and has two sons. He received a democratic education in the public schools of Vienna, which shocked sticklers at etiquette of the Viennese Court, but which has secured him much popularity with his subjects. It is generally believed that, compared with the other Hapsburgs, his tendency is towards democratic reforms for Austria; but the clamoring demands of the divided elements in this patchwork Empire go far beyond such ideas, and his government, for example, has proclaimed the Czecho-Slovaks as traitors who would receive no mercy.

Q.—Is Roumania's king a Hohenzollern?

A.—Ferdinand I (born 1865), who became King of Roumania in succession to his uncle Charles I on October 11, 1914, is a member of the Catholic branch of the German Hohenzollerns.

Q.—What race is King Peter?

A.—Peter I (born 1844), King of Serbia since June 15, 1903, is a member of the Karageorgevitch family. He ascended the throne as the result of a palace revolution, in which the rival dynasty, the Obrenovich, was exterminated. Owing to his feeble health in recent years, King Peter has practically abdicated, and the Crown Prince Alexander has acted as regent.

Q.—Is Constantine still a king?

A.—No. He abdicated. Constantine I (born 1868) married Sophia, sister of the German Emperor, and, partly because of her influence, attempted to manipulate Greek policy in the interest of Germany. On June 11, 1917, he was forced to abdicate by Great Britain, France, and Russia, who justified their action on three facts: (1) Greece had been created a kingdom in 1830 through their intervention; (2) they had placed the present dynasty on the throne in 1863; (3) they had guaranteed a constitutional government. The new King, Alexander, second son of Constantine, invited M. Venizelos to resume office and consented to the reassembling of the Parliament, dissolved in 1915.

Q.—When was the late Czar born?

A.—Nicholas II was born in 1862. He ascended the throne October 20, 1894, and married Alexandra, Princess of Hesse, the same year. Nicholas inaugurated his reign by a rigorous repression of all liberal movements and then embarked on a policy of adventure in the Far East, which ended in the war with Japan (1904-5) and the defeat of Russia. During the war a revolutionary movement manifested itself at home, which, culminating in the general strike of October, 1905, forced the Czar to grant a constitution. But Nicholas distrusted the liberals and gave the bureaucracy a free hand in crushing liberal movements. At the beginning of the European war the Czar proclaimed the solidarity of throne and people, thereby securing a considerable measure of popularity; but, once again, he relied too exclusively on the bureaucracy, with disastrous results, for these reactionaries soon lost interest in the war, and the Czar was compelled by the revolutionists to abdicate March 15, 1917. He was put to death July 16, 1918.

Q.—Was Francis Joseph a Hapsburg?

A.—Yes. Francis (Franz) Joseph (1830-1916), late Emperor of Austria and

King of Hungary, came to the throne on December 2, 1848, when the polyglot lands of the Hapsburg monarchy were on the point of dissolution. His task during his entire reign was essentially dynastic, the holding together of his dominions. Under his rule the Austrian Provinces in Italy, except Trentino and Trieste, were lost to the new Kingdom of Italy (1859-1866) and Austrian influence in Germany was destroyed by Prussia in the war of 1866. But in his task of holding together the Austrian dominions proper he secured a relative success. Hungary was pacified by the agreement of 1867, which granted autonomy in local matters and an equal share in the government of the monarchy. Opinions differ as to the native ability of Francis Joseph, but it would at least appear that long study of men had given him great fitness in dealing with the peculiar problems of Austria-Hungary. His private life was a pilgrimage of sorrow. His wife was murdered by an anarchist, his son perished in an obscure affair, and lastly his nephew and heir was murdered a Serajevo in 1914.

Q.—Is Bulgaria's ruler King or Czar?

A.—He is a Czar. Ferdinand I (born 1861) was the younger son of the Prince of Saxe-Coburg, and in 1887 was elected by the Bulgarians to be their prince. During the next years his policy was aimed at two things—(1) to promote the well-being of Bulgaria, and (2) to create an army strong enough to make Bulgaria the leading State in the Balkans. In these highly unselfish aims he was temporarily successful; in 1912 Bulgaria was a prosperous State, and in the first Balkan war the Bulgarian army proved its worth.

Q.—Where was Queen Alexandra, English Queen-mother, born?

A.—She was born on September 1, 1844, in Denmark, being the eldest daughter of King Christian IX of Denmark. Her brother, Frederick VII, was King of Denmark for six years. The present sovereign, Christian X, is her nephew. Another brother was King George of Greece. Thus ex-King Constantine is her nephew and a first cousin of King George of England.

Q.—What relation is the Emperor of Germany to King George?

A.—Cousin. The Emperor's mother was the eldest daughter of Queen Victoria, and sister of Edward VII. The Emperor is, in fact, as much English as King George, whose mother was a Danish Princess.

Q.—What blood is the Prince Consort of the Queen of Holland?

A.—He belongs to the Mecklenburg family, being an uncle of the present Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The Grand Ducal House of Mecklenberg is the only reigning family in western Europe of Slavonic origin, and claims to be the oldest sovereign house in the western world. In their full title the Grand Dukes style themselves Princes of the Wends. Their genealogical table begins with Niklot, who died in 1160, and comprises 25 generations.

Q.—Is the Queen of Roumania an English Princess?

A.—She is so regarded, being a daughter of one of the sons of Queen Victoria, Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, who, in 1893, became Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha in succession to the brother of the Prince Consort. Prince Alfred married the Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrovna of Russia, and had four daughters—the present Queen of Rumania being the eldest—and one son, who predeceased him. The Duke of Connaught became heir to the Dukedom of Saxe-Coburg when Prince Alfred died, but he and his son renounced the succession. It then passed to the son of the late Duke of Albany, Queen Victoria's youngest son. This son, a grandson of Queen Victoria, and brother of Princess Alexander of Teck, and therefore the brother-in-law of Queen Mary, was recently deprived of his English titles by King George, on the ground that he was a German Prince. The Queen of Roumania is his cousin. Other first cousins of her are King George, the Queen of Spain, the Queen of Norway, the Crown Princess of Sweden, Prince Arthur of Connaught, the Kaiser, the ex-Queen of Greece, Prince Henry of Prussia and Princess Henry, the ex-Czarina, Princess Louise of Battenberg, and Prince Albert of Schleswig-Holstein.

Q.—Is the wife of the ex-Czar Nicholas a German princess by birth?

A.—She is almost always spoken of as a pure German, but though she was born in Hesse, her mother was Princess Alice of England, the favorite daughter of Queen Victoria, sister of Edward VII,

an aunt of King George V. Her sister married Prince Louis of Battenburg, who was First Sea Lord when the war broke out. Her father was Grand Duke Ludwig of Hesse.

Q.—Is it true that the Kaiser, by virtue of his English mother, has a claim to the British throne?

A.—Certainly not. Although women may sit on the throne of England, the male members of the family inherit first. Consequently, although the Kaiser's mother was the eldest child of Queen Victoria, she could have come to the throne only if her brothers, King Edward VII, the Duke of Edinburgh, and the Duke of Connaught had died. Had they all died, their children would have succeeded to the throne of Great Britain before the children of the Empress. Far away from the throne of England as he is, the young son of the King of Norway, whose mother is King Edward's daughter, is nearer to it than is the Kaiser.

Q.—Was Hanover ever under British rule, and for what period of time?

A.—Hanover was never under British rule, but an Elector of Hanover, George Louis, became King George I of Great Britain and Ireland in 1714. From that time until 1837 the Kings of England were Electors, and, later, Kings of Hanover as well, but Hanover was not ruled from London, any more than the United Kingdom was ruled from Hanover. British Ministers always took care to keep the interest of Great Britain distinct from those of their King's other kingdom on the Continent. Because of this connection with England, however, Hanover had a bad time before, during, and after the Napoleonic wars. It was regarded as a vulnerable outpost of Great Britain.

Q.—Did Hanover fight Prussia?

A.—The Hanoverians fought against Prussia, in 1743, were allied with Frederick the Great during the Seven Years' War, and in 1757 were compelled to abandon their country to the French. Next year, thanks to English gold, the French were cleared out. Hanoverian troops fought with the Allies against France from 1793 to 1795, when a treaty between France and Prussia forced neutrality upon them. The Prussians occupied the country in 1801, on the suggestion of Napoleon, but two years later the French were again in occupation. After Jena, Napoleon divided Hanover in two. The southern half he added to the Kingdom of Westphalia, and the northern to France. With his final defeat, Hanover became again independent.

Q.—When was Hanover separated from the British throne?

A.—When William IV died in 1837 and was succeeded by Queen Victoria, the sovereign of Great Britain ceased to be also ruler of Hanover, because under the dynastic laws of Hanover a woman was not allowed to ascend that throne. Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, obtained the succession, therefore, instead of Queen Victoria. The two crowns had been united for 123 years. The growing power of Prussia was a bitter thing to the Hanoverians, and, in the war between the former and Austria, blind King George V of Hanover threw in his lot with the Austrians. He was defeated in the field, and Hanover was formally annexed to Prussia in 1866.

Q.—How are the rulers of Europe inter-related?

A.—King George is first cousin of the ex-Czar and also of the Czarina. He is first cousin of the King of Denmark, brother of the Queen of Norway, first cousin of the Queen of Spain; of the ex-King of Greece, of the Duke of Brunswick (who married the Kaiser's daughter in 1913); of the Duke of Coburg, and is related to many other reigning princes of Germany, now in the field. The King of Italy and the King of Serbia both married daughters of the King of Montenegro, other daughters of that monarch marrying German and Russian princes. Ferdinand of Bulgaria is a nephew of Prince Albert, King George's grandfather. King Albert of Belgium is closely related to the Hohenzollerns, and Saxe-Coburgs, and the Bavarian Royal House. The Queen of Holland is a Princess of Nassau, and married Prince Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, whose niece married the Crown Prince of Germany. The King of Sweden is a grandson of Napoleon's Marshal, Bernadotte, and married the daughter of the Grand Duke of Baden. The Emperor of Austria is the head of the House of Hapsburg, with relatives in every Court in Europe. The King of Spain belongs to that House.

Q.—How many kings have reigned in Prussia since Frederick the Great?

A.—Six. The first King of Prussia was Elector Friedrich of Brandenburg. He assumed the crown as Friedrich I in 1701. He was followed by Friedrich Wilhelm I in 1713. Then came Friedrich II (Frederick the Great) in 1740. He was followed by Friedrich Wilhelm II in 1786, then came Friedrich Wilhelm III in 1797. (This is the King who fought Napoleon.) Friedrich Wilhelm IV followed in 1840, then Wilhelm I in 1861. He became German Emperor in 1871. His son, Friedrich III, succeeded in 1888 and reigned for three months. His son, the present Kaiser Wilhelm II, began his reign in 1888.

Q.—What was the so-called "Three-Emperor Year"?

A.—1888. Three Emperors succeeded each other in Germany that year, owing to death. Wilhelm I, his son Friedrich III, and the present Kaiser Wilhelm II.

Q.—Who is the wealthiest sovereign in the world?

A.—The Mikado. His revenues, however, are administered by the Elder Statesmen. He owns about 5 million acres, more than one-twentieth of the area of Japan. He holds shares in the Bank of Japan, Yokohama Specie Bank, Industrial Bank, and the Shipping Company Nippon Yusen Kaisha. His land holdings probably reach 500 million dollars and his industrial holdings 250 millions. The German Kaiser's property is believed to aggregate about 125 millions in value. Both Kaiser and Mikado have to pay many pensions and other grants out of this income.

Q.—Does the Belgian Royal Family still reside in Belgium?

A.—The village capital of La Panne shelters the royal family. It is in that ever famous little northwestern corner which for two years and a half has been all of the kingdom of Belgium under royal rule.

Q.—Is ex-King Constantine of Greece a great soldier?

A.—Dr. Dillon called him the world's greatest living strategist, but that is no doubt a great exaggeration. Still there is the fact that he led the Greeks to victory in both Balkan wars, and it is due to his military achievements that he had such great influence in Greece.

Q.—What are the incomes of European monarchs?

A.—The ruling kings get certain grants from the State, and in addition most of them have large private estates, which bring them in great incomes. King George gets most of his money not because he is King of England, but because he is Duke of York, of Lancaster, etc. Each monarch has a civil list paid him by the State, and out of this he has to pay for his various establishments and make allowances to sons, daughters and other members of his family. In England special grants are made by the State to members of the Royal Family. Queen Alexandra gets £70,000 ($350,000) a year, the Duke of Connaught £25,000 ($125,000) annually, and some half-dozen others get £6,000 ($30,000) a year each. The Prince of Wales gets about £90,000 ($450,000) a year revenue from the Duchy of Cornwall. The revenue the King draws from his Duchy of Lancaster is about £70,000 ($350,000) a year. The civil lists of the reigning sovereigns were as follows:

Czar of Russia.....	$8,000,000
Emperor of Austria.....	4,710,000
German Emperor.....	3,850,000
King of England.....	3,080,000
King of Italy.....	3,000,000
King of Belgium.....	660,000
King of Greece.....	400,000
Queen of Holland.....	400,000
Czar of Bulgaria.....	400,000
King of Sweden.....	391,250
King of Denmark.....	275,000
King of Serbia.....	240,000
King of Roumania.....	500,000
King of Norway.....	190,000

WAR'S WHO'S WHO IN FIGHTERS

Q.—Was General Wood a doctor at first?

A.—Major-General Leonard Wood, wounded early in 1918 by a gun-explosion in France, served through the Geronimo Apache campaign in the American southwest as a "contract surgeon"—meaning that he was not regularly in the service. He was soon made a lieutenant and was one of the captors of Geronimo. In the war with Spain he was Lieutenant-Colonel of the Rough Riders. He became Brigadier-General, won great fame for his work in regenerating the city of Santiago-de-Cuba, and was made Major-General when Roosevelt became President. He then served in the Philippines(Governor of Mindanao and Commander of the Department of the Philippines) and became Chief of Staff of the U. S. Army later.

Q.—Was General Joffre in the Franco-Prussian War?

A.—General Joseph Jacques Cesaire Joffre (born 1852) was second-lieutenant during the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71, commanding a battery in the siege of Paris. He served with distinction in Asia and Africa. Appointed chief of the general staff of the French Army in 1911, he assumed chief command at the beginning of the war. He was succeeded in active supreme command at the end of 1916, after two and a half years, by General Nivelle, whose reputation was made in the defense of Verdun, but who was soon superseded by General Petain. General Joffre was then made marshal of France, and is now chief military adviser to the French Government.

He was a popular hero in America in 1917 when he was here as the head of the French mission.

Q.—Who was Lord Kitchener?

A.—The foremost British soldier of modern times, and at the time of his death beyond doubt the most dominant personality in the British Empire. His achievements—the conquest of the Sudan, the completion of the South African campaign, administration of Egyptian affairs, and, above all, the building up of a vast British fighting force for Britain's greatest war—place him in the front rank of the world's great men, as a soldier, administrator and military organizer. He was drowned in the sinking by mine or submarine of the British warship *Hampshire* off the western coast of the Orkney Isles June 5, 1916, while on his way to a consultation in Russia regarding details of the Allied offensive of 1916. His body was never recovered.

Q.—What was Beatty's command in the Jutland fight?

A.—Sir David Beatty, who was made Commander of the Grand Fleet of the British Navy in succession to Sir John R. Jellicoe, was present and played a gallant part in the battle of Jutland in 1916 as commander of the First Battle Cruiser Squadron. In 1901 he married a daughter of Marshall Field, of Chicago.

Q.—Who was the chief of the English Navy when war began?

A.—Admiral Sir John R. Jellicoe (born 1859). He had seen service in all parts of the world, and in August, 1914, was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Fleet. He commanded in the battle off Jutland in 1916. He relinquished his place to Sir David Beatty, becoming First Sea Lord at the Admiralty, which place he retained till nearly 1918.

Q.—Who succeeded Admiral Jellicoe as First Sea Lord?

A.—Jellicoe was succeeded by Vice-Admiral Sir Rossyln Wemyss, who stepped into his new appointment on December 26, 1917. Wemyss commanded the squadron which in the early part of 1915 protected the landing of the troops in Gallipoli. He is 53 years of age and entered the Navy in 1877.

Q.—Is Petain really a great general?

A.—He is. Verdun is by no means the first victory he has to his credit. He was a colonel when the war began, but was at once put in command of a brigade, and was General of Division before the battle of the Marne began. He was thus mentioned in the army order of September 21, 1914:—"Petain, General commanding the Sixth Division of Infantry, has, by his example, his tenacity, his calm under fire, his incessant foresight, his continual

intervention at the right moment, obtained from his division during fourteen days of consecutive fighting, a magnificent effort, resisting repeated attacks night and day, and the fourteenth day, in spite of his losses, repelling a very violent final attack."

Q.—What else did he do?

A.—He was placed in command of an army corps, and later a division of Moroccan troops joined him. He was then ordered to take Carency and pierce the German front. After three days' preparation he did so, and broke clean through the enemy lines, so it is reported. So impossible had his colleagues thought success to be that they had not the necessary reserves available. Consequently, instead of being a possible turning-point of the war, Carency remains only a brilliant local victory. Petain also was responsible for the notable French advance in the Champagne. Again, it is said, reserves he ought to have had failed to appear at the crucial moment. Petain is 59 years old, and is unmarried.

Q.—Is Haig a commander-in-chief?

A.—Sir Douglas Haig (born 1861) is field marshal and commander-in-chief of the British forces in France and Flanders, being promoted when Sir John French was called in 1915. He was for many years in the cavalry, becoming major-general in 1904, lieutenant-general in 1910, and general in 1914. He was at Khartum with Kitchener, fought for three years in the South African war, and saw much service in India. He was made field marshal after the Battle of the Somme in 1916.

Q.—Was Hindenburg noted as a general before the war?

A.—He was not famous at all, apparently not even in Germany. He was noted, if at all, only because military circles knew that he had a "fad" for studying the Mazurian Lake region of East Prussia.

When the Russians invaded that province in August, 1914, Hindenburg was suddenly called from retirement, and, through his special knowledge, got the victory at Tannenberg. That victory made him the idol of Germany, and led the Kaiser to create him field marshal. The following summer he drove the Russians out of Poland. After the Battle of the Somme which reflected little credit on General von Falkenhayn, that general was deposed as chief of the general staff and Hindenburg put in his place (1916). Hindenburg's chief exploit as chief of staff has been the retreat from the Somme in March, 1917, a maneuver which saved the Germans from a very dangerous situation and made an end to the Battle of the Somme and established the famous Hindenburg line. It is often asserted that Hindenburg is not so great a general as his former assistant, Ludendorff, the first quartermaster-general. In March, 1918, he began the great German offensive in Picardy and Flanders.

Q.—Was General French a cavalryman?

A.—A very noted one. Field Marshal Sir John French, later Viscount, became celebrated as commander of the cavalry division in the South African war. He commanded with skill the British expeditionary force in Belgium and France from the beginning of the war until he was replaced in 1915 by Sir Douglas Haig. He was chief of the imperial general staff in 1912-14. His title is Viscount French of Ypres, in testimony of his gallant and magnificent services in that battle by which the Germans were frustrated in their design to reach Calais.

Q.—Who was the cruelest German commander in Belgium?

A.—Probably that doubtful honor belongs to General Freiherr von Bissing (1844-1917), who was German military governor of Belgium, 1914-1916, and responsible, under the higher German authorities, for the scheme of reprisals and deportations. General von Bissing favored the retention of Belgium by Germany, and sought to disrupt Belgian unity by dividing the Flemings and Walloons into separate administrative districts. He died early in 1917.

Q.—Who commanded the big Russian drive of 1916?

A.—General Alexis Brusilov. He was born in the Caucasus some 60 years ago. After the removal of the Grand Duke Nicholas he took command of the southwestern army, and was in charge of the Russian drive in the summer of 1916, which cost the Austrians 300,000 men. He accepted the revolution of 1917, and was made commander-in-chief of all the Russian armies. He was in charge of the Russian drive of July, 1917, but when the Russian armies broke down under the Austro-German counter drive he resigned.

Q.—Is Cadorna Italian commander-in-chief?

A.—General Luigi, Count Cadorna, was commander-in-chief until the great defeat of the Isonzo in November, 1917, when he was replaced by General Diaz. A native of the extreme northern part of Italy, the borderland of Lake Maggiore, between Lombardy and Piedmont, he is a son of the General Count Cadorna who entered Rome with the Italian troops in 1870 and gave the city as a capital to Victor Emmanuel.

Q.—Did a German manage the Turkish army?

A.—Yes. General Kolmar von der Goltz went to Turkey in 1883 and did much to reorganize the Turkish army. In 1908 he returned to Turkey and spent two years in building up the Turkish army after the Young Turk revolution. When disaster overtook the Turks in the Balkan wars, two years after his departure, von der Goltz received no small blame for the failure of his pupils. This is probably unjust, for the failure seems due to causes over which von der Goltz had no control. He returned to Germany in 1910, became field marshal, and, after the outbreak of war and the invasion of Belgium, military governor of the latter country. After the entry of Turkey into the war, he went to Constantinople to direct the Turkish armies, and died, while at the Turkish front, April 19, 1916.

Q.—Was Boy-Ed a sailor?

A.—Yes. Captain Karl Boy-Ed was in the German Navy and was naval attaché of the German embassy in Washington. He was dismissed by our Government on December 4, 1915, for "improper activity in naval matters."

Q.—Was Kornilov a Cossack?

A.—Yes. General L. G. Kornilov was a Siberian Cossack general, commanding one of the armies in the invasion of Galicia. During the Russian retreat he was captured by the Austrians, but escaped. When the revolution broke out in March, 1917, he was appointed commandant at Petrograd, and later detailed to the southwestern army under Brusilov. He commanded one of the armies in the advance of July, 1917. After Brusilov's resignation he was made commander-in-chief of the Russian army, and inaugurated a series of strong military measures against deserters and slackers.

In September he began a march on Petrograd apparently with the object of changing the personnel of the government. The movement collapsed, and General Kornilov was sentenced to be tried as a rebel.

Q.—Does a woman own the great Krupp works?

A.—Yes. The Krupp works were inherited some years before the war by Bertha, the daughter of Frederick Alfred Krupp, who died in 1902. The founder of the works was Alfred Krupp (1812-1887). These great plants at Essen employ an army of men. In 1902 the various Krupp works employed 43,100 persons, 24,000 being in and around Essen.

Q.—Was Nivelle ever French commander-in-chief?

A.—General Robert Nivelle succeeded Joffre as commander-in-chief in December, 1916, and relinquished the post a few months later to General Petain. He was a colonel of an artillery regiment in the Battle of the Marne at the beginning of the war. By conspicuous gallantry he turned the tide at the Ourcq River and distinguished himself in subsequent engagements. He was called to Verdun in March, 1916, in the midst of the Crown Prince's "drive" on that stronghold. It has been said that he was "the heart and soul" of the French resistance in the months that followed.

Subsequently his armies failed in a great offensive and there has been much political excitement in France about this affair. It was the great offensive on the Aisne front whose culmination came April 16, 1917, with terribly heavy French losses, though signalized by brilliant deeds.

Q.—Why was General Robertson retired?

A.—Ostensibly because he would not agree with the Versailles Conference. General Sir William Robertson has been called "the brains of the British Army." Since 1915 he has been chief of the imperial general staff. He came out of a humble home in Lincolnshire, where he was born in 1860. Entering the service as a trooper, he saw active service in many parts of the British Empire, and was severely wounded in one of his colonial campaigns. Before being called to his high office he commanded the first infantry division in France and was chief

of staff to Field Marshal Sir John French. He was knighted in 1915.

Q.—Who led the British army that captured German West Africa?

A.—General Smuts, a Boer from Cape Colony, and a Boer leader against England in 1903. He succeeded to command of the East African Expedition in March, 1916, and within a year had driven the German forces out and become the conqueror of Germany's colonies in West Africa.

Q.—Is Von Tirpitz a Junker?

A.—No, except in opinion and sympathy. Admiral Alfred von Tirpitz is a fighting man pure and simple, and his political competence never would have made him important. But as an admiral he became a great power.

The present German navy was built under his direction, and he inspired and directed the German Navy League. He continued to hold office while other ministers were dismissed. When he was finally retired as Secretary of the Navy, he became a leader of the Tory Vaterland party, a Pan-German party that demands victory and annexations.

Q.—Which general reduced Maubeuge?

A.—General von Zwehl. According to American correspondents, that fortress fell in the anticipated ten days, and the prisoners numbered 40,000.

Q.—Who is General Baden-Powell?

A.—He is an Englishman, son of the Rev. Prof. Baden-Powell, of Oxford, and of the daughter of Admiral W. H. Smyth. He retired from the army in 1908, and devoted himself to the Boy Scout movement, which he originated. The scouts have done splendid service in England during the war, largely under his direction. His name is pronounced Bayden-Poel.

Q.—What was General Sarrail's command?

A.—He was in charge of the army in the Verdun region, and it was he who reconstructed that famous fortress, for he was quick to learn the lesson of Liege and Namur. Before the European struggle he had seen service in Algeria and Tunis. He is one of the youngest of the older French generals, being only 59. His name became a familiar one to the whole world when he was placed in charge of the allied troops that seized the Greek-Macedonian port of Saloniki and established the allied front across the southern Balkans.

Q.—Who is Enver Pasha?

A.—He is the Minister of War in Turkey. He is described as a man of dictatorial temper, without any of the attributes of a dictator. Yet, he aims to be the dictator of Turkey; he already is dictator of her policy. Of Polish descent, he is Prussian by training and sympathies. He married a daughter of the Sultan.

Q.—Is he a good soldier?

A.—Physically he is dauntless and dashing. He fought well against the Italians in Tripoli, but made a ghastly mess of things when he opposed the Bulgarians. He is apparently a fine fighter but without much talent for scientific strategy. It was he who led the revolution during the Balkan war when Nazim Pasha was assassinated—it is said by Enver himself. He was also prominent in the movement which led to the deposition of Sultan Abdul, in 1909. He has worked in absolute compliance to the wishes and aims of the Germans.

Q.—Who was the von Moltke who was Chief of the German General Staff when the war broke out?

A.—The von Moltke who was Chief-of-Staff in 1914, and who died recently, was a nephew of the great strategist Count Helmuth von Moltke, who defeated Austria in 1867 and France in 1870. This field marshal was born in 1800, and was, therefore, 70 years old when France and Prussia went to war.

Q.—How old are the leading soldiers in this war?

A.—It is a war of young soldiers but of old leaders. When the struggle began Kitchener was 63; French, the greatest cavalry leader in Great Britain, was 61; Lord Fisher was 72; General Joffre was 62; General Pau came out of his retirement at 66, and took the second position in the French Army; General Castelnau, third in command, was about the same age; and General Gallieni, the defender of Paris, was 70. Von der Goltz was 71; von Hindenburg 67, and von Emmich, who took Liége and has since died, was 64. Von Kluck was 67, and von Moltke 66.

The struggle, as it progressed, however, gave younger men a chance. Von Ludendorff, who appears to share supreme command with von Hindenburg in Germany, was only 50, but von Mackensen, the greatest fighting general the enemy have, was nearly 70. Sir Douglas Haig was 54; Sir David Beatty is one of the youngest admirals. He is only 45. Sir W. Robertson, Chief-of-Staff in Great Britain, was 56. On the whole admirals are considerably younger than generals. There is no notable general in the English army as young as Beatty. The former commander-in-chief of the Grand Fleet, Admiral Jellico, is 56. Compared with the majority of the leaders in the field to-day, the brilliant soldiers of the Napoleonic era were youths.

Q.—Was Bernhardi a political power in Germany?

A.—No. General Friedrich von Bernhardi (born 1849) was a military writer utterly cynical, arrogant and Prussian. His political importance is due only to his expression of militarist political ideas. He achieved prominence through his volume "Germany and the Next War" (1911). In this he sets forth with frank cynicism the advantages, the necessity and the inevitability of a war between Germany and England. His argument is: Germany can acquire that "place in the sun" which is her due only by war, because the Triple Entente—Russia, France and England—each and all endowed with vast colonial possessions which they can not adequately use, have been surrounding Germany with a ring of iron. "In one way or another we must square our account with France if we wish for a free hand in our international policy." For Germany the question is, "to be, or not to be." It is either "world power or downfall." While his book was too expensive to be read by common people, it had, nevertheless, gone through eight editions before the war.

Q.—What war experience did General Pershing have?

A.—A great deal, before he went to France. In the year of his graduation from West Point (1886), John Joseph Pershing (born 1860 in Missouri) was sent to New Mexico and Arizona to fight in the Apache campaign. He remained in active Indian service till the Sioux campaign in Dakota (1891) practically ended Indian warfare. In 1898 he commanded the Tenth Cavalry in the fighting around Santiago de Cuba in the Spanish-American War. From 1899 to 1903 he served in the Philippines. He was American military attache in Tokio, 1905-1906, and as such was with Kuroki's army in Manchuria during the Russo-Japanese War. In 1906 he returned to the Philippines and had the very arduous task of governing Mindanao and the rebellious Moros. It was a long campaign, partly military and partly diplomatic, and "Jack" Pershing became equally famous in Washington for his talents in both directions. He finally ended Moro opposition by administering a decisive defeat to them in the famous Battle of Bagsag.

In 1915 he commanded the Presidio in California, and there came a tragedy in his life when his wife and three daughters were burned to death there.

In March, 1916, General Pershing became freshly famous when he commanded the celebrated expeditionary force that penetrated into Mexico and ended Villa's power for disorder. In 1917 he became Commander-in-Chief of the American Expeditionary Forces in France.

Q.—When did General Foch first become known?

A.—At the Battle of the Marne, September, 1914, when he led the 7th French Army Corps. He was assigned, under General Joffre's strategy, to oppose the victoriously advancing German line at a point south of Chalons—almost exactly midway between Paris and Verdun. Foch's army represented the French center. The Germans struck at it desperately on September 7 and drove the French south, inflicting heavy losses. Foch rallied his forces and on September 9, by a brilliant piece of strategy, assumed an utterly unexpected offensive himself, and drove his army clear through the German line, routing the famous Prussian Guard. It is held that this battle decided the Battle of the Marne. It forced the swift retirement of the whole German line. Later Foch's troops, with the British, fought the tremendous Battle of Ypres. Foch was 67 years old when, in March, 1918, he was made supreme commander of not only the French, but the British and American forces to oppose the furious thrust of the Germans toward Amiens in the great Battle of Picardy.

WAR'S WHO'S WHO IN CIVILIANS

Q.—Was Asquith in power when war began?

A.—He was Prime Minister, a post he had held since 1908. It carried with it, under English political custom, the leadership of his party.

He had been Home Secretary in Gladstone's last ministry, Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1905, and Prime Minister in 1908. His attitude toward foreign affairs was largely the moderate imperialism of Lord Rosebery. In domestic politics, while opposing the Radicals, he advocated social reform, home rule for Ireland, the democratization of the electoral system, and especially restrictions on the Legislative veto of the House of Lords. The Parliament act of 1911, by which the House of Lords lost its power to stop legislation passed by the Commons, was passed when he was Premier. In 1915, to avoid a general election, he established a coalition cabinet. The Dardanelles failure and the Mesopotamian fiasco put his Government on the defensive. The opposition of the Northcliffe newspapers, the unwillingness of Lloyd George to support him, and the widespread feeling that his Government was not sufficiently energetic forced his resignation on December 5, 1916.

Q.—What has been Lloyd George's career?

A.—The Prime Minister has had a notable and active life. David Lloyd George, a Welshman (born 1863), entered Parliment in 1890. He drew public attention by his vigorous opposition to the Boer War, which he denounced in public meetings at decided personal risk. Nevertheless, he entered the Liberal Cabinet of 1905, and 1908 became Chancellor of the Exchequer. His first budget proposed a heavy tax on unoccupied land and was forced through the House of Lords only by the threat of the creation of new peers. He then championed the cause of social reforms, being the chief advocate of measures such as workingmen's insurance. In May, 1915, he undertook the difficult task of directing the munitions production, in which labor difficulties had arisen. For this task a new department, the Ministry of Munitions, was created. As Minister of Munitions, Lloyd George was a success, and when Asquith resigned in December, 1916, he became Premier.

Q.—Is Balfour a statesman of the democratic type?

A.—Arthur James Balfour (born 1848) is a very distinguished and skilful statesman distinctly of the old-fashioned British type. He entered Parliament in 1874, held several cabinet positions, and became head of the Conservative Party and Premier in July, 1902. He resigned in December, 1905, just before a crushing defeat of his party at the hands of the Liberals in the elections of January, 1906. His leadership of the party in opposition was disliked, and he later resigned this leadership to Bonar Law.

When the coalition cabinet was formed in May, 1915, Mr. Balfour became head of the admiralty, and in December, 1916, relinquished this for the post of Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, succeeding Viscount Grey of Falloden. In this capacity he headed the British mission to the United States in the spring of 1917.

Q.—Who was the "War Chancellor" in Germany?

A.—Dr. Theobald von Bethmann-Hollweg (born 1856). He was the son of a famous Prussian Liberal politician and passed through the grades of the public service to the Ministry of the Interior. In July, 1909, he succeeded Prince Bülow as Imperial Chancellor, and held office eight years. Before the war Bethmann-Hollweg was considered a Liberal. He seems to have desired an *entente* with Great Britain, and had, apparently, achieved it in 1914, when, as he lamented, the war shattered his plans.

In German politics he tried to hold the balance between the Pan-Germans and the Socialists, refusing to commit himself to any definite peace program, but his majority was destroyed in July, 1917, when the Center, or Catholic, party suddenly allied itself with the Socialists in favor of a peace without annexations or indemnities.

Von Bethmann-Hollweg declared in the Reichstag that Belgium had been wronged under the pressure of necessity.

Q.—Who succeeded Von Bethmann-Hollweg as German Chancellor?

A.—(1) Dr. Georg Michaelis (born 1857) succeeded von Bethmann-Hollweg directly (in July, 1917), but lasted only

until November. He failed to develop any policy satisfactory to any party in the Reichstag. He had been Prussian undersecretary of finance and later food controller, in which office he had been notably successful.

(II) Count George V. von Hertling (born 1843) became Chancellor of the German Empire after November 1, 1917, in succession to Michaelis. A fact worth noting is that he is a Bavarian while his predecessors were Prussians. He was for years a professor in Bonn, then a member of the Bavarian Chamber. Since 1912 he had been Prime Minister of Bavaria. In politics he belongs to the conservative wing of the Center or Clerical party. He was said to be more flexible in his views than many German leaders and to be opposed to the annexation program of the Pan-Germans. He has been hailed as recognizing parliamentary rule because he consulted leaders of the Reichstag.

Q.—How many Foreign Ministers has Germany had since war began?

A.—Four, from the beginning of war, to August, 1918.

(1) Gottlieb von Jagow (born 1863) held the office when war began.

(2) Dr. Alfred Zimmerman (born 1859), appointed 1916, forced to resign when the United States disclosed his note to the German Minister in Mexico proposing an alliance of Germany, Mexico and Japan against the United States if we should enter the war.

(3) Succeeded in 1917 by Richard von Kuhlmann (born 1873), who was Councillor of the German Embassy in London when the war began. Then went to Holland, later was ambassador to Turkey, recalled to become Foreign Minister.

(4) Paul Hintze appointed July 9, 1918, Admiral German Navy, had been Minister to Norway.

Q.—Is von Bülow playing any part in Europe now?

A.—After his failure as Ambassador to keep Italy out of the war, he lived in Switzerland and became one of the mysteries of the war. His book "Imperial Germany" (1913) is an excellent presentation of the moderate Prussian point of view.

Prince Bernhard von Bülow (born 1849) belongs to one of the distinguished families of Europe. He was Chancellor of the Empire from 1900 to 1909.

Q.—Who was Premier of France when war began?

A.—René Viviani was Premier of France at the outbreak of the war, but gave way to M. Briand, in whose cabinet he accepted the post of vice president and Minister of Justice. He was the head of the French mission which visited the United States in May, 1917. M. Viviani is a gifted orator, who aroused his American audiences to enthusiasm.

The second Premier was Aristide Briand (born 1862), who had been Prime Minister several times. He began his career as a Socialist. His most notable achievement was the application of the law separating church and state. In 1909 he suppressed a railway strike by calling the strikers to the colors, despite the fact that he was the leading member of the Socialist-Radical party. Briand was Prime Minister from October 30, 1915, to March 17, 1917.

Q.—Who was France's third war Premier?

A.—Alexandre F. J. Ribot (born 1842) who had been Prime Minister several times, like Briand. He is the man who, between 1890 and 1893, first as Foreign Minister, later as Foreign Minister and Premier, pushed through the Franco-Russian agreement. Between 1895 and 1906 he was less prominent in public life but when nationalism revived in France after 1906 Ribot again became more of a figure. In October, 1915, he became Finance Minister and in March, 1917, Premier. He advocated a vigorous prosecution of the war but was defeated on a small question in August, 1917. He remained in the Government of his successor, M. Painlevé, as Minister of Foreign Affairs, but soon withdrew.

Q.—Did France have a professor as Premier?

A.—Paul Painlevé (1863) was a scientist and scholar, a mathematician, professor at the Sorbonne, a brilliant chemist, a physicist, an excellent speaker, and leader in political life. In politics he is a Republican-Socialist, i. e., a moderate. At the opening of the war he urged the appointment of a superior commission on inventions to continue the work of the commission on inventions of the War Department, most of whose officials had taken the field. He himself is reported to have invented the gas used against the Germans at Verdun.

He was taken into the cabinet as Min-

ister of Public Instruction, October 31, 1915; was appointed to the new portfolio of Minister of Inventions in January, 1916; Minister of War, 1917, where one of his chief acts was the appointment of Petain to the chief command. On the fall of the Ribot ministry in September, 1917, he was called to constitute a ministry from all parties (except the Unified Socialists) for the sole purpose of prosecuting the war; this lasted, however, only for a few weeks, failing in November, 1917.

Q.—Had Clémenceau been Premier before?

A.—Georges Clémenceau (born 1841) is a former premier of France. For several years he lived in America, but returned to France in 1869. He entered political life after the war of 1870-71. Owing to his great power as a debater, he has always been one of the most influential members of the Chamber of Deputies. He has probably made and unmade more ministries than any other Frenchman of recent history, and is known popularly as "The Tiger." He is the editor of a newspaper *L'Homme Libre*, which was censored so often during the war that he changed its name to *L'Homme Enchaine*. It was his scathing attack on Malvy, Minister of the Interior (since banished from France) which led to the fall of the Ribot ministry.

Q.—Has the President of France held office throughout the war?

A.—The President of France is elected (by vote of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies) for a period of 7 years. The term of the present President does not expire till 1920. The President of France has not nearly the powers of an American President.

The present President is Raymond Poincaré. He was elected January 17, 1913. Born at Bar-le-Duc, in French Lorraine. Lawyer (advocate at the court of Paris) and writer. Elected to the Chamber of Deputies at the age of 27, in 1893 he became Minister of Public Instruction; 1894, of Finance; 1895, of Public Instruction; 1896, of Finance. He refused four other offers of ministries. He was elected senator, 1903, and was finally appointed Prime Minister and Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1912, which office he held until elected President. He has written many books, among others "How France Is Governed" (1913). He has been opposed by the Socialists.

Q.—Has Serbia still a government?

A.—Yes. It still has its king and cabinet, though, of course, they are not in Serbia. Prominent in this exiled court is Nicholas P. Pasitch, Premier of Serbia, who has held office since September, 1912. He piloted Serbia successfully through the Balkan wars, and during the vicissitudes of the little nation since the Austro-German-Bulgarian conquest (November, 1915) the venerable Premier was a constant inspiration to his people.

Q.—Why did Count Okuma resign as Japanese Prime Minister?

A.—Count Shigenobu Okuma (born 1838), after the fall of Kiachow, presented to China a series of demands which the latter found unacceptable. After considerable negotiation a compromise was reached which gave dissatisfaction in Japan, and in October, 1916, Count Okuma resigned in favor of Count Terauchi. Count Okuma does not belong to one of the great clans. He has always given great attention to the internal development of Japan, and Waseda University is his own creation.

Q.—How long did the Salandra ministry last after Italy declared war on Austria?

A.—One year. Antonio Salandra (born 1853) had become Premier in March, 1914. He had been professor of law at the University of Rome, and minister in several Italian cabinets. At the outbreak of the European war he refused to follow Germany and Austria, claiming that the Triple Alliance treaty had been broken by Austria. From this position he progressed toward hostility to Austria and alliance with the Triple Entente, and, despite the opposition of Giolitti, he carried his policy, and Italy declared war on Austria in May, 1915. He resigned as Premier in June, 1916.

Q.—Who is Vittorio Orlando?

A.—He was made Premier of Italy October 30, 1917. He was born in 1860 at Palermo, became professor of administrative law in the University of Rome, then a deputy, then Minister of Public Instruction in Giolitti's cabinet, and later Minister of the Interior.

Q.—Who signed the Austrian ultimatum to Serbia?

A.—Count Leopold Berchtold (born 1863), Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1912-1915.

Q.—Was Tisza a reactionary?

A.—He was an uncompromising old-time government official. Count Stephen Tisza (born 1861) was a son of a famous statesman and entered politics in 1886, becoming Prime Minister in 1903. He carried through the Diet new and stringent rules of procedure, but had to resign in 1905. He returned to office in 1913. His home policy has been one of inexorable Magyarization. When the new King, Charles IV, came to the throne with ideas of concessions to the non-Magyar races, the continuance of Tisza in power became an impossibility, and he resigned early in 1917.

Q.—Is Count Czernin a German?

A.—No. He comes from Bohemian Czech stock. It was a prominent family and Count V. zu Chudenitz Czernin (born 1857) entered the diplomatic service, and in 1914 was Austrian minister to Roumania. When his attempts to prevent Roumania from entering the war failed, he returned to Austria. In December, 1916, he became Minister of Foreign Affairs and president of the Joint Council of Ministers. His efforts were directed to bringing about a peace based on no annexations and no indemnities, working in alliance with the Center party in Germany and its leader, Mathias Erzberger. He was apparently an advocate of better treatment for the Slavic nationalities within the empire.

Q.—What German politician caused the Reichstag resolution for peace without annexations?

A.—Mathias Erzberger (born 1875), a member of the German Reichstag and leader of the Center party (Catholic party). In July, 1917, after a visit to Switzerland and Austria, where he had interviews with Count Czernin and Prince von Bülow, he made a sensational speech in the Reichstag urging the conclusion of peace on the basis of no annexations and no indemnities. He brought the Center party into opposition to the policies advocated by Chancellor Michaelis, thus bringing into existence an opposition majority in the Reichstag.

Q.—Was Viscount Grey a Conservative?

A.—No. Sir Edward Grey, Viscount of Falloden, and British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs at the outbreak of war, was a Liberal in politics. He entered Parliament in 1885, was undersecretary for Foreign Affairs, 1892-1895, and in 1905 became Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in the Liberal cabinet. When he became director of British foreign policy, England was shifting her policy of isolation with regard to continental affairs to one of participation in them. Grey continued this policy and strengthened the *entente* with France, and negotiated one with Russia. In 1911 he supported France against Germany in Morocco, but in 1914 he negotiated a treaty over the Bagdad railway which Germans regarded as in every way satisfactory. An idealist and an advocate of internationalism in Europe, he strove during the Balkan wars to provide a settlement that should be just and satisfactory. In 1915 he tried, with M. Sazonov, to revive the Balkan League, and after the failure of this project and the collapse of Roumania, he left the cabinet in December, 1916. He was raised to the peerage in 1916.

Q.—Did the British appoint a Governor over Egypt?

A.—No. After they deposed the Khedive, Abbas II, they appointed Hussein Kamil Sultan of Egypt on December 19, 1914. He is the son of the Khedive Ismail (1863-1879).

Q.—Who was the first Russian Premier after the revolution?

A.—Prince George E. Lvov. He held office only from March to June, 1917. He had been prominent in the zemstvos, and had organized a national council of zemstvo representatives which took over much of the work of supplying the Russian armies; and in that capacity achieved a great success and won public confidence. He resigned in July chiefly because he was unwilling to concede the demand for autonomy put forward by the Ukraine, and was succeeded by Kerensky.

Q.—Why did Kerensky fail?

A.—Chiefly, apparently, because he became distrusted through his efforts to continue the war. The Russian people wanted peace and suspected him, apparently, of wishing to continue war for the interest of other nations. His failure to

publish the secret treaties was another factor in his loss of the public confidence. The Bolsheviki published these treaties the moment they gained power.

Alexander F. Kerensky (born 1881) was a lawyer who had done much in defending workmen, political offenders, and Jews. He entered the Duma in 1912 as deputy for Saratov. As leader of the Socialist Labor party he was prominent in the revolution of March, 1917. He gave the signal for the Duma to continue its sitting when the Czar ordered its dissolution. Made Minister of Justice in the Provisional Government, he abolished the death penalty, only to restore it when he also assumed the portfolio of Minister of War. On July 22, 1917, Kerensky became Premier, in succession to Prince Lvov. His power was challenged in September, 1917, by General Kornilov, and in November, 1917, by the Bolsheviki, who sought an immediate peace and the application of the principles of radical socialism to questions of property in land and industry. The movement resulted in the downfall of Kerensky's Government.

Q.—Is "Trotzky" the Russian leader's real name?

A.—No. His real name is understood to be Leber Bronstein. The story of how he came to call himself Trotzky is as unique as the man's whole career. He was imprisoned in Russia for revolutionary propaganda and when he was released he became what the Russian police authorities called an "illegal person," and so found it necessary to hide himself under an assumed name. His jailer had been a man named Trotzky—so he conceived the original idea of naming himself so. This is his own story as he told it while in New York.

Q.—What did Trotzky do in New York?

A.—In New York he lived with his wife and two children in three rooms in a Bronx tenement and earned a very modest living by writing for the *Novy Mir*, the Russian Socialist daily, and speaking at Socialist meetings. He did not get as much weekly income as does the average American unskilled laborer.

Q.—Did anybody in America expect him to become world-famous?

A.—Apparently not even his friends. Those who knew him viewed him merely as one of many clever, fiery, fanatical, social revolutionaries. That he would engage prominently in the Russian revolution was expected as a matter of course. That he would become a world-figure seems not to have been imagined by his friends; perhaps not by himself.

Q.—Had Trotzky been at all prominent in Russia?

A.—Yes. In the 1905 revolution following the Russo-Japanese war, he was made President of the first Workingmen's Council in Petrograd as a successor to the original incumbent. He remained president until the defeat of the revolution. Then he was arrested and exiled to Siberia. From there he succeeded in making his escape, and went to Switzerland.

In Switzerland he founded a Socialist paper *Prada* (The Truth), which was printed in Russian and German both.

In about 1910 he went to Germany but soon found it advisable to flee, as arrest had been threatened.

Q.—Where was he when the war began?

A.—He was in Vienna, went to Serbia, returned to Switzerland, and then went to Paris to edit a Russian Socialist paper there. Of his further career he said himself while in New York:

"When a Russian division of troops (in France) mutinied and killed the general, I addressed a severe letter of criticism of the French government to Jules Guesede, a Socialist member of the cabinet, for the savage punishment that was meted out to the Russian troops. This so displeased the French government that I was ordered out of France. I then went back to Switzerland, but Switzerland feared complications with the Czaristic government and would not let me in. I then turned to Spain. Spain would not have me either. I was detained at Barcelona, where I was to be deported to Cuba, where I knew no one, and where I should have found myself completely stranded. Later the Spanish government decided to let me go where I pleased, provided only I left Spain. Every country in Europe practically was now closed to me, and so I turned my gaze across the Atlantic, and arrived at Ellis Island at the end of December, 1916."

Q.—Where was Trotzky born?

A.—He was born in 1878 or 1879 in a little Jewish colony in southern Russia, in the government of Kherson. When

about fourteen years of age he entered the gymnasium of Chernigov, and, like most of the passionate youth of Russia, soon became interested in the revolutionary movements. When he was about 20 years old, the Russian revolutionary movement entered one of its active phases. He says of this period:

"I plunged into propaganda, but continued to study sociology, political economy and history and became a convinced Marxian Socialist. When the Russian Social Democracy split up into two sections on the issue of tactics, I did not identify myself with either the Mensheviki or the Bolsheviki, but continued to work for the general cause of overthrow of Czarism and the cause of Socialism. However, I leaned strongly to the radical side. In other words, I was a Menshevik of the extreme left, or a near-Bolshevik."

Q.—Was Lenine paid by Germany?

A.—The documents published by our government confirm the charge repeatedly made. Nikolai Lenine (born 1870) became the chief leader of the Russian Bolsheviki. His real name is said to be Vladmir Utulyanov. In the early nineties he became a leader of the radical Social Democrats of Russia. Elected to the second Duma after the revolution of 1905, he was exiled. At the beginning of the war he was in Cracow, where he was interned as an enemy alien but released and allowed to join the colony of radical Russians in Switzerland. In April, 1917, he reached Petrograd, where he began to preach immediate peace and general confiscation of land. He was the leader of the first Bolsheviki rising in Petrograd in July, 1917. After that movement was put down he remained in hiding, part of the time probably in Finland, but was in constant correspondence with the Bolsheviki. In November, 1917, he again headed an uprising of the Bolsheviki in Petrograd.

Q.—Was Liebknecht expelled from the German Socialist party?

A.—Yes. He was expelled January 13, 1916. Karl Liebknecht, born 1871, is the son of Wilhelm Liebknecht, one of the founders of modern Socialism. He entered the Reichstag in 1912, and became noted for his opposition to the Government. In August, 1914, he voted in the party caucus against sustaining the Government's demands of war credits, but in the Reichstag he voted with the majority to do so, in accordance with the Socialist theory that party members should vote as a unit. In December, 1914, he openly voted against further military credits, declaring that the war was one of of defense on Germany's part. On January 13, 1916, he was expelled from the Socialist party for refusing to vote with them, and in May, 1916, he was sentenced to four years and one month of prison for a speech delivered May 1, 1916. He served eight months in a fortress in 1907 for high treason in having written a pamphlet about the army.

Q.—Was the founder of Socialism a German?

A.—Yes. The founder of modern socialism was Karl Marx (1818-1823), a German of Jewish ancestry.

Being expelled from Prussia, after living in Paris and Brussels he settled in London, where his home became a center for fellow exiles. is "Communist Manifesto," published a few days before the wave of revolutions which swept over Europe in 1848, made him the head of the International Workingmen's Association. This "International" had an active existence from 1864 to 1870 in uniting the proletariat of Europe against capitalism.

In 1859 Marx published the first volume of his great work, "Capital." It teaches that all history has been a class struggle of patrician against plebs, of noble against serf, of capitalist against workingman. In the class struggle of the future, as the rich grow richer and fewer, and the poor grow poorer, more numerous and more discontented, the poor must surely triumph and seize all instruments of production.

Marx is thus the main inspiration of the Social Democratic party in Germany and of Socialist parties in most other countries. Leading Socialists to-day recognize that some of the Marxian doctrines need revision.

Q.—Who is Cardinal Mercier?

A.—He was president of the great university of Louvain, Archbishop of Malines until he was made a Cardinal in 1907, and is a scholar of high distinction. When Belgium is herself again the memory of her brave Archbishop will stand with that of her heroic king, and that of her stout army, enrolled forever in historic fame.

When the Germans invaded Belgium he drew world notice by his patriotic labors and courage, especially by his pastoral letter of Christmas, 1914. For this he was forbidden by the German authorities

to leave his episcopal residence, an act which drew on Germany the protest of the Pope.

Q.—Was Lord Northcliffe always a journalist?

A.—He began poor in a commonplace little weekly paper that had a big circulation among certain classes in England. He is now the owner of of the *Daily Mail*, the great *London Times*, and many other publications. His name is Alfred Harmsworth. He was born in 1865 and was in America as the head of various British war missions.

Q.—Was Nietzsche a leader of popular thought in Germany?

A.—He was a modern philosopher and the large public knew him only by name, if it knew him at all. Friederich Wilhelm Nietzsche dealt in abstract thoughts in which large publics have no interest. Born in 1844, he became professor of classical philology at Basel, 1869. Ill health caused his resignation, 1870. He was comparatively well until 1888, but his vigorous mind broke down and he became hopelessly insane in 1889.

Nietzsche insists that individuals of higher culture must assert themselves for the sake of civilization. They must oppose conventional ideas and customs.

While of course Nietzsche was a mystical thinker, not a political writer, his doctrine of the superman, not subject to ordinary laws, has undoubtedly influenced German thought and actions—with disastrous results.

Q.—Has a Pope died since the war began?

A.—Yes. Pope Pius X (born 1835) died on August 20, 1914. His death is said to have been hastened by the outbreak of the war. On August 19, the day before his death, he issued an appeal for peace.

Q.—Is the present Pope an Italian?

A.—Yes. Benedict XV Giacomo della Chiesa (born 1854) and pope since the death of Pius X in 1914, was formerly cardinal archbishop of Bologna.

Q.—Is Count Reventlow a German official?

A.—No. Count Ernst zu Reventlow is a furiously Pan-German extremist journalist (born 1871), whose writings in the *Deutsche Tages-Zeitung* have been distinguished for their bitter and uncompromising hatred of the United States. He has written a book on German foreign policy, *"Deutschlands Auswärtige Politik*, 1888-1914."

Q.—Is Thomas, the French politician, a Socialist?

A.—He is one of the leading Socialists of Europe. He is the son of a baker and became a Socialist, joining the extreme party, the Unified Socialists. Successively he was elected a municipal councillor, mayor, deputy to the French Chamber. At the outbreak of the war, he started as sergeant, then became a lieutenant. Consulted continually by Millerand, Minister of War, on the subject of munitions, he was made undersecretary for munitions. In the reorganized cabinet of December, 1916, with only five members in the war council, he was made Minister of Munitions. He stood strongly against allowing French Socialist delegates to go to the Stockholm Conference in 1917. He resigned in September, 1917, because Premier Ribot could not give a definition of the war aims of France satisfactory to the United Socialists. As the latter party would enter no ministry with Ribot, Thomas was not included in the Painlevé ministry of September, 1917.

Q.—What has made Trietschke famous?

A.—The whole world has found abundant material in his writings to prove German lust for conquest. He was a historian, and though born a Saxon, he believed in Prussia as the State which could best unite Germany. He became professor of history in the University of Berlin. His lectures were crowded with students. His pronouncements on German policy in the *Preussiche Jahrbücher* determined opinion. He wrote history that glorifies the rise of Prussia; he acclaimed the union of Germany and the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine as he saw it realized through the Franco-Prussian war; he insisted upon the concentration of power in the German State and on the dominant position of that State in Europe. He was also a rabid opponent of England.

Q.—Is Venizelos a Greek?

A.—He was born in the island of Crete, in 1864. He first entered Greek politics in 1909, when he was summoned by the king and helped to pilot the country through the Balkan wars. From the beginning of the European conflict he fa-

vored the cause of the Allies, and urged King Constantine to join them. But the king twice dismissed his masterful Premier, who at last set up a Provisional Government at Saloniki for the defense of Greece. After the abdication of Constantine on June 11, 1917, Venizelos again became Premier with the power of the Allies behind him.

Q.—Was von Bernstorff in America long before the war?

A.—Count J. H. von Bernstorff (born 1862) was in this country for six years before the war, having been appointed German ambassador to the United States in 1908. He was absent from his post at the outbreak of the war, but returned at once. He was handed his passports on February 3, 1917, immediately after Germany's announcement of unrestricted warfare. Since his return to Germany he has been appointed ambassador to Turkey in succession to Dr. von Kuhlmann, who became Foreign Minister.

Q.—What ambassadors and ministers were in Washington when we declared war on Germany?

A.—Belgium, M. E. de Cartier de Marchienne; Brazil, Senhor Domicio da Gama; China, Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo; Cuba, Dr. Carlos de Cespedes; France, M. Jules Jusserand; Great Britain, Sir Cecil Spring-Rice; Greece, M. A. Vouros (chargé); Guatemala, Señor Don Joaquin Mendez; Italy, Count Macchi di Cellere; Japan, Mr. Aimaro Sato; Panama, Señor Don Belisario Porras; Portugal, Viscount d'Alte; Russia, Prof. Boris Bakhmeteff; Serbia, Mr. Lioubomir Michailovitch; Siam, Phya Prabha Karavongse.

Q.—Who were our Ambassadors when we declared war on Germany?

A.—Belgium, Brand Whitlock; Brazil, Edwin V. Morgan; China, Paul S. Reinsch; Cuba, William E. Gonzales; France, William G. Sharp; Great Britain, Walter H. Page; Greece, Garrett Droppers; Guatemala, William H. Leavell; Italy, Thomas Nelson Page; Japan, Roland S. Morris; Panama, William J. Price; Portugal, Thomas H. Birch; Roumania, Charles J. Vopicka; Russia, David R. Francis; Serbia, H. Percival Dodge (special agent); Siam, George P. Ingersoll.

Q.—What charges were made against Bolo Pasha?

A.—Paul Bolo, better known as Bolo Pasha, was formally charged with having maintained communication with the enemy in Switzerland in 1915 and in Paris the same year, when he received German money from Cavallini to further the pacifist movement; in the United States in 1916, for having received through Pavenstedt and the Deutsche Bank German money to influence the French newspapers, and for advancing money to the director of the *Paris Journal*.

He was sentenced to death in February, 1918.

Q.—How old are the English leaders?

A.—Lloyd George is one of the young men of the cabinet, being only 53 when he became Prime Minister. He was a year younger than W. M. Hughes, ex-premier of Australia, who was 54. Asquith was 64, Balfour was 68, Bonar Law 58, Chamberlain 53, McKenna 53, Harcourt 54, Birrell 67, Curzon 58 in 1916. Herbert Samuel was the youngest Minister in the Asquith Cabinet, being only 46.

Q.—Who was Jean de Bloch?

A.—The author of a famous and monumental work on war. It was published sixteen years ago, and showed that modern war must become trench fighting, and that entire nations must inevitably become engaged. His forecasts were wonderfully accurate. H. G. Wells says that he was much studied in Germany and his lessons were taken to heart, but in England few knew about him. He was a banker of Warsaw, a Russian Jew. He made the study of war his hobby, and labored hard to promote the cause of international arbitration, holding that war entailed such ghastly suffering that everyone who could do so should work to make its outbreak impossible. He spent a large fortune to this end. He died a few years ago. He was utterly wrong, however, in a chief part of his prophecy —that the monstrous cost of modern war would make a long war impossible.

Q.—Is it a fact that Lord Chelmsford's family name is Thesiger?

A.—The present Lord Chelmsford is the third baron. His grandfather was Frederic Thesiger, twice Lord Chancellor of England, whose brother, Sir Frederic Thesiger, was Naval A. D. C. to Nelson at Copenhagen. The first baron's father

was a Saxon who had migrated to England, where he became secretary to Lord Rockingham. The German strain in the present Viceroy of India is, therefore, very slight.

Q.—Who is Henri Bourassa?

A.—He is a French-Canadian, and one of the most picturesque figures in public life in the Dominion. He is an anti-Imperial Socialist, editor of the paper *L Devoir,* published in Montreal. He is a member of Parliament, and has a very strong and devoted following of French-Canadians. He strongly opposed the raising of troops in Canada during the Boer war, and campaigned against Canadian participation in the present struggle.

Q.—Who is Maximilian Harden?

A.—One of the very important journalists and publicists of Europe. In his youth he was a friend and to some extent a confidant of Bismarck. During the past decade he has published a paper *Die Zukunft* ("The Future"), which has voiced the most liberal opinion in Germany. Some years ago *Die Zukunft* became familiar to the whole world through Harden's bold attack on certain highly placed men who were close to the Kaiser. Harden triumphed, despite suits for libel that were brought by the assailed men. The Kaiser dismissed them, and there was a great political clearance.

Since the war began he has been one of the few Germans who measurably kept their heads. Almost consistently he has warned his own people that they must not think all the wrong-doing is on the side of their enemies.

Q.—Is Lord Milner a German?

A.—According to the British law, that is to say, *jus soli,* he would be so regarded as he was born in Bonn in Germany. According to German or French law, that is to say, *jus sanguinis,* he would be regarded as an Englishman, for his father was British in the eyes of that law, although, according to English law, he, too, was a German. Lord Milner's grandfather was an Englishman but he married in Germany and Lord Milner's father was born at Bonn on the Rhine. His mother was English.

He went to Africa as High Commissioner and Governor of Cape Colony in 1897, and remained there as High Commissioner and Administrator of the conquered Transvaal and Orange Free State until he retired in 1905.

THE WORKERS

Q.—What is the biggest American labor organization?

A.—The American Federation of Labor, formed in 1881. It is a federation, or union, of 109 national and international unions, each of which maintains its own individual existence, while giving up certain powers to the common head.

The Knights of Labor, who had sought to merge all the separate unions into one national organization, gave way before the federation movement in the years 1885-1890. A few important national unions, such as the four railroad brotherhoods, and the national window-glass workers, are not affiliated with the federation. The paid-up membership of the federation is now approximately 2,070,000. Its headquarters are in Washington, D. C., its president is Samuel Gompers, its secretary Frank Morrison, and its official organ the *American Federationist.*

Q.—Do most American workingmen belong to labor unions?

A.—No. There are about 30,000,000 men in the United States who earn their living with their hands. Less than 3,000,000 are affiliated with labor unions.

Q.—Has American labor been conscripted?

A.—No. There has been talk of it, not officially, but among some factions representing various opinions, about the best way to conduct war. The workingmen have answered the suggestion with the general reply that if labor is conscripted, capital also must be conscripted.

Q.—Has any state passed a compulsory labor law?

A.—Yes. Maryland and West Virginia recently passed laws providing that every man must work at least thirty-six hours a week, and New York and New Jersey have enacted that idlers, rich or poor, shall be fined and jailed. This, it must be noted, is not "conscription of labor." It is conscription of idle persons, in so far as it can be called "conscription" at all.

Q.—What is sabotage?

A.—The organized hampering of production by slack work, the skillful disabling of machinery, or the publication of trade secrets as a part of the "class struggle" between employing classes and labor. The practice first came into prominence in France in 1895, and it was formally approved at the Congress of the French General Confederation of Labor in 1897, and the approval was reaffirmed at the Congress of 1900.

Q.—What was the origin of the word boycott?

A.—Ireland gave it to us, as she has given so many expressive words. Parnell in 1880 advised the people to punish a man for taking a farm from which another had been evicted "by isolating him from his kind as if he were a leper of old." The first victim of the new system was the agent of Lord Erne, an absentee landlord, who had estates in Mayo. This agent refused to accept rents at figures fixed by the tenants, and was treated according to Parnell's advice. His servants were forced to leave him, his crops were left to rot in the fields, even the post and telegraph were interfered with. The agent's name was Captain Boycott, and the name of the first victim was given to the system.

Q.—How many motor cars were produced in the United States in 1916?

A.—Motor vehicles produced: 1916, 1,617,708; 1915, 892,618. Passenger cars sold: 1916, 1,525,578; 1915, 842,229. Motor trucks sold: 1916, 92,130; 1915, 50,369. Retail value of motor vehicles sold: 1916, $1,088,028,273; 1915, $691,778,950. Average price of passenger cars: 1916, $605; 1915, $672. Number of cars and trucks exported first ten months: 1916, 67,616; 1915, 53,380. Value of cars and trucks exported first ten months: 1916, $100,147,636; 1915, $94,434,432. It is estimated that in California there is one motor car to eleven of the population.

Q.—Are women doing men's work in all belligerent countries?

A.—In England, France, Germany and Austria, women have largely replaced men in many industries. In Russia and Italy women always have been accustomed to working in the fields and in certain other manual occupations, and,

since the war, they have been more than ever responsible for the sowing and gathering in of the crops.

Q.—What work do the women do?

A.—In England half a million, at least, are working in munition factories. They act in the entire country as tram and bus conductors, taxi drivers, chauffeurs and elevator operators. In addition they do heavier work, cart and deliver coal, act as laborers in many districts, and, in Birmingham, for instance, have replaced men as road-workers. They were urged to work in the fields, but the response was not as great as was hoped. In France and Germany women work in the munition factories, and, in fact, in all manner of occupations usually reserved exclusively for men.

Q.—Do English women munition workers get men's wages?

A.—"Equal pay, equal work," has been the formula adopted ever since the Minister of Munitions took over the factories. Women were all paid at the same piece rates as men, and a time rate was fixed at £1 ($4.87) a week. The original arrangement has been slightly amended since, and provides for the payment of £1 for a 48-hour week to women of eighteen years and over, and an extra 6-pence (about 12 cents) an hour for all additional work.

This rate, however, applies only to the national factories, and has not been extended to the private establishments, where, apparently, women have been working on munitions of war for 5 and 6 cents an hour. In the national factories the rate is 8 and 9 cents. It is pointed out, however, by the National Federation of Women Workers that a pound a week is, according to pre-war standards, worth now only $3.25 a week, and it is being paid for work formerly done by men, and admittedly of vital importance to the nation. In a recent inquiry it came out that in many branches of munition making not under direct Government control women were only getting $3.37 a week.

Q.—How many German women are in industries?

A.—Helferich, German Minister for Internal Affairs, gave figures in the Reichstag concerning the employment of women in Germany. He did not mention the actual numbers, merely giving percentages. On July 1, 1914, the proportion of women employed in the electrical industries was 24 per cent; on July 1, 1915, it was 55 per cent. In other industries the respective figures were:—Chemicals, 7 per cent to 23 per cent; metallurgy and engineering, 7 per cent to 19 per cent; textures, 54 per cent to 64 per cent; wood-working, 15 per cent to 26 per cent; clothing, 53 per cent to 64 per cent; agriculture, 32 per cent to 45 per cent; building, 3 per cent to 9 per cent. There are probably far more women now employed, as a general mobilization of the German population occurred in 1916.

Q.—Have Chinese workmen been sent to France?

A.—They have been there some time, and, according to neutral papers, have given great satisfaction. One hundred thousand were originally contracted for, the arrangement having been made through the Chinese banks at a fixed rate per head.

Q.—How many countries have adopted daylight saving?

A.—Great Britain was the first to propose the scheme. William Willet, a London builder, advocated it for years, but Parliament always blocked the bill. Germany adopted the principle on May 1, 1916. Great Britain followed suit on May 21, and most European countries then put the clock forward an hour. Holland, having such close trade relations with Germany, quickly copied her, and Austria-Hungary did the same. Italy came into line on June 3. The Danes were, however, the first to follow Germany, putting the clock forward on May 15.

Q.—When did America adopt it?

A.—The bill to save daylight was passed by Congress on March 15, 1918. It provided that at 2 A. M. of the last Sunday of March in each year the clocks should be advanced one hour and at 2 A. M. of the last Sunday in October they were to be set back again one hour, and thus returned to the old time for the months of short days. Five time-zones were established to conform with the zones for standard time that had always existed.

Q.—Are the Germans working the Belgian and French mines?

A.—Dr. Dillon says they are, and that no fewer than 40,000 Belgian and French miners are doing the work. Dutch reports confirm this, and state that all the

coal is sent to Germany. Timber is also being cut from the Belgian forests. The figures as to the Belgian labor employed have been exceedingly conflicting. Before the war about 200,000 work people had been regularly engaged in coal and iron mining and quarrying.

Q.—What wages are paid in China?

A.—J. P. Donovan, in *The Empire Review*, says: "Although the cost of labor has risen in China, as in other countries, during the past twenty years, it is still low when compared with what is paid for the same kind in either Europe or America. Ordinary laborers receive from 12s. to 18s. a month ($3 to $4.50), while the wages of skilled laborers and mechanics rarely exceed from £2 to £3 ($10 to $15) a month. In the Hanyang steel works, which was started by the Viceroy Chang-Chih-tung and where some 5,000 men are employed, ordinary laborers receive about $3 a month. Women reelers in the silk factories in Shanghai earn less than 25 cents a day for eleven hours' work. Generally speaking, laborers in the interior are paid 6d. to 9d. (12 to 18 cents) a day, for which they work from ten to twelve hours."

Q.—Is there shortage of British miners?

A.—The number of persons employed in the mines in May, 1915, was 953,642, a decrease of 180,104 from the number employed during the period January-July, 1914. The output of coal for the year 1913 was 287,411,869 tons; in 1914, 265,643,030 tons; in 1915, there was a further decline, the production being 253,179,446 tons, which made 34,232,423 tons less in 1915 than in 1913. In 1913, 73,400,118 tons were exported; in 1914, 70,561,402 tons; in 1915, 50,576,078 tons; and in 1916, 46,112,155 tons. These totals include the coal taken on steamers for their own use. Since Italy, Spain, Greece and Norway rely almost entirely upon coal from overseas, it is evident that nothing like the requirements of these countries have been met since the war began. Germany used to send coal to some of these places, and France used to produce what she wanted. All must now look to England or to America, and the above figures show that Great Britain exported 27,000,000 tons less in 1916 than in 1913, so they must have gone very short.

Q.—How did England settle the big 1916 railway dispute?

A.—The men asked for an increase of 10 shillings a week on all wages, basing their demand on the rise in the cost of living. They obtained exactly half what they asked for, but in the form of a war bonus, not as increase of wages. In October, 1915, a war bonus of 5 shillings was paid by the railway companies. Since then it has been increased to 10 shillings. The increase means that the men are now getting on the average a third more in wages than they did before the war started; but as the cost of food has increased more than 100 per cent, and the general cost of living has gone up nearly 75 per cent, the men declare that they actually are worse off now than when the war began. The Government, by the way, has to pay the bonus of 10 shillings a week. The companies do not, although they made the arrangement with the men.

Q.—On what terms did the English Government take over the railways?

A.—The agreement made by the Board of Trade was that the Government leased the railways from the twenty-nine companies concerned for the period of the war on the basis of their net earnings in 1913, less 12½ per cent of the war bonus granted to the men, and that out of this rental the companies had to meet any addition to their interest charges.

Q.—How many women are employed in British industries?

A.—Omitting domestic servants and women at work in military, naval and Red Cross hospitals, it is estimated that nearly 5,000,000 women are directly employed in various occupations in Great Britain.

Q.—How many were employed before the war?

A.—About 3,750,000. Since the war 1,250,000 men have been directly replaced by women.

Q.—How many war factories are there in Great Britain?

A.—In December, 1916, the Minister of Munitions announced that the total number of controlled establishments in the United Kingdom was 4,585.

SPIES, TRAITORS AND ALIEN ENEMIES

Q.—What is a spy?

A.—Article 82 of the United States Articles of War says: "Any person who in time of war shall be found lurking or acting as a spy in or about any of the fortifications, posts, quarters or encampments of any of the armies of the United States, or elsewhere, shall be tried by a court-martial or by a military commission and shall, on conviction thereof, suffer death."

Hague Rule XXIX, and the "Rules of Land Warfare" (General Staff, U. S. A., 1914) define a spy as a person who clandestinely or on false pretences endeavors to obtain information with the intention of communicating it to the hostile party.

Soldiers in their own uniform who penetrate hostile lines for information are not considered spies. They are spies if they wear false uniform or any disguise.

Q.—Is an enemy alien that gives information a spy?

A.—Yes. Any person, no matter what the nationality may be, is guilty of spying if he tries to send information out of the country, directly or indirectly, with intent of aiding the enemy.

Technically, it might be held that the information must be of military nature; but in this war there has come such an intimate and intricate inter-relation of military, industrial and political matters, that the tendency would be to charge that even political information was so designed to give "aid and comfort to the enemy" that it comes under either espionage or treason.

Q.—Is a man who is confessedly a German officer a spy?

A.—Not if he has informed the government promptly and voluntarily of his presence and rank. If he conceals the fact, and is arrested subsequently and charged with being a spy, it still would be necessary to prove that he collected information with intent to send it to his army. But the concealment would make a grave count to begin with, and would, no doubt, be held as presumption in itself that he was a spy, because one of the "acid tests" of a spy is his clandestine character.

Q.—Is a woman of German birth who accidentally learns something of importance and tells it, a spy?

A.—It depends on the person to whom she tells it, and her intent in telling it, and, of course, the nature of the information. If her intention in telling it is to convey information of value to the enemy, she is guilty of a crime that is grave in war, whether it be committed by an alien or a native.

The fact that she obtained the information accidentally would not in itself necessarily clear her from the charge of being a spy,though it might be accepted as presumptive evidence in her favor.

If she obtained the information accidentally and simply repeated it through the habit of gossip, she would be in the same category as any American-born woman guilty of the same thing, but she would have a more difficult task to clear herself of suspicion.

Q.—What actions lay a person open to being shot as a spy?

A.—Any activity that would tend to gather information valuable to an enemy will subject a person in time of war to the charge of being a spy. Within a military zone actions that might be quite innocent elsewhere often are highly suspicious, and the apprehended person will have a much harder time explaining these actions than he would have outside of such military zones. This is not an unfair rule in itself, for civilians and even soldiers, who are not called by actual business into such a zone, have no business there.

The almost universal military punishment for spying is death; and the death sentence may be inflicted even if a spy has not succeeded in getting any information or in transmitting it to the enemy.

Q.—Are spies shot without trial?

A.—The Hague Conventions provide that a spy, even when taken in the act, "should not be punished" without previous trial. If a spy happens to be caught by soldiers engaged at the moment in fighting for their lives, his chances probably are not particularly good. If, however, a spy is brought before officers, he should, and as a rule does, get a

trial. Among troops engaged in active operations, however, the method of trial is pretty swift and not very lenient.

Q.—What is a court-martial?

A.—It is a military court, composed wholly of soldiers—army officers in army matters and navy officers in naval matters. In peace-times a court-martial usually is assembled with much care and full time is given to the case. In war, courts-martial are assembled quickly, and the manner of trial generally depends on the conditions at the given moment, the amount of time at the disposal of the court, the attitude of the members, etc. The accused may have military counsel assigned to him by the court, but he has not the right to demand counsel of his own selection. A summary court-martial may last only a few minutes.

A fundamental difference in principle between courts-martial and civil courts is this: a civil court is supposed in law to look after the interest of the defendant very carefully. He is presumed to be innocent until convicted. A court-martial, while it is expected to be just, looks after the interests of its own army first, second and all the time.

Q.—Can a person giving information to his own government be shot as a spy?

A.—Yes. He may be punished either as a spy or as a "war traitor," according to the nature of the case. Paragraph 204 of the U. S. A. "Rules of Land Warfare" says: "If the citizen or subject of a country or place invaded or conquered, gives information to his own government, from which he is separated by the hostile army, or if he gives information to the army of his government, he is a war traitor."

Q.—What is the difference between a spy and a "war traitor"?

A.—The term was devised by soldiers to fit the case of the inhabitants of an invaded district who try to give news to their own army or government. These people obviously lack the "clandestine" character of spies, since they have not entered the invading lines purposely, but are caught within them against their will.

To meet this case, the world's legal military minds have devised the crime of "war treason." Any information, aid or comfort that the inhabitants of invaded districts give to their own side, and anything they may do to hamper or injure the invaders is "war treason." They may not even offer voluntarily to serve as guides to their own government's army.

The punishments for "war treason" are the same as for spying. A "war traitor" usually is shot pretty summarily.

Q.—Is spying a crime in peace-times?

A.—It is, but it is usually limited wholly to such spying as actually deals with military secrets. Foreign officers and soldiers, for instance, may move freely in another country, during peace-time, without wearing uniforms or otherwise declaring themselves, and they will not be considered spies unless they actually try to get military secrets either by subterfuge or by corrupting somebody.

In time of war, on the contrary, any officer or soldier of a belligerent power caught in the territory of another belligerent, in civilian clothes, would be considered as being in disguise; and being in disguise is one of the important counts in declaring men guilty of being spies.

Q.—Is spying in peace-times punished by death?

A.—It may be, but it very rarely is. All the European governments have more or less elaborate "secret service" organizations for getting military secrets, and for that reason spy-trials are handled rather delicately in times of peace, and the most usual punishment is a term in prison.

Some time before the big war, Great Britain caught some German army officers and Germany caught some British army officers in the act of gathering military information. Both parties were in civilian garb, and each government tried its captives with astonishing politeness and caution. The men were sentenced in each case to fairly long prison terms, but it was generally understood by both nations that the sentences were to be carried out without subjecting the prisoners to the onus of felons, and there were guarded suggestions that they might, in fact, be released as soon as possible.

Q.—Is a person who tries to get commercial and other non-military secrets in peace-times a spy?

A.—No. The laws of all nations against espionage cover only espionage for military purposes. A man trying to get commercial secrets may render him-

self liable to punishment if he corrupts government officials, or private employees, or otherwise tries wrongfully to get information, but that is a matter of common law that has nothing to do with espionage.

As a matter of fact, all governments keep commercial and consular agents in the territory of other nations to gather commercial and industrial information, and this is done not only openly but by mutual consent.

BELGIUM'S LONG TORMENT

Q.—Were charges of atrocities by the German armies officially investigated?

A.—They were investigated by the Bryce Committee, appointed December 15, 1914, in Great Britain under Viscount Bryce, once Ambassador to the United States, and by the Belgian Commission of Inquiry under M. Van Iseghem, President of the Court of Cassation, appointed August 7, 1914.

Q.—What were the conclusions of the investigators?

A.—Both bodies issued voluminous reports and found that the charges had been proved beyond doubt. A French official report attested to the same conclusion in 1915.

Q.—What was the summary of the charges?

A.—The Belgian Commission declared that: thousands of unoffending civilians, including aged people, women and children, had been killed by the invaders; that women had been outraged; that German soldiers entering towns maddened themselves with drink; that soldiers and officers looted on a gigantic scale; that booty was sent back to Germany by connivance of the authorities; that pillage had been accompanied with wanton destruction; that human beings were burnt alive during the burnings of towns, villages and houses; that hostages were taken, thus making innocent people responsible for the acts of others; that large numbers had been forced to labor against their will or had been carried to Germany; that cities and communes had been fined because of Belgian military successes; that civilians had been used as screens.

Q.—Did the Bryce Committee make the same findings?

A.—Yes. Its conclusions were that "murder, lust and pillage prevailed over many parts of Belgium on a scale unparalleled in any war between civilized nations during the last three centuries."

Q.—Were these conclusions based on much evidence?

A.—More than 1,200 depositions had been gathered in England for 3 or 4 months before the Bryce Committee was appointed. These were exhaustively considered with many new ones (together with a large number of diaries taken from German dead), and the collected evidence forms a great mass of published documents. The Belgian report was based on an equally large mass of testimony.

Q.—Where and when were these crimes committed?

A.—"If a line is drawn from the Belgian frontier to Liege and continued to Charleroi, and a second line from Liege to Malines, a figure resembling an irregular Y will be formed. It is along this Y that most of the systematic (as opposed to isolated) outrages were committed. The period from August 4 to August 30 will be found to cover most of these. Termonde and Alost extend beyond the Y lines, and they belong to September. Murder, rape, arson, and pillage began the moment the German army crossed the frontier. For the first fortnight the villages near Liege were the chief sufferers. From August 10 to the end of the month outrages spread in the directions of Charleroi and Malines. There is a certain significance in the fact that the outrages round Liege coincide with the unexpected resistance of the Belgian Army in that district, and that the slaughter from August 19 to the end of the month is contemporaneous with the period when the German army's need for a quick passage through Belgium at all costs was deemed imperative."—Bryce Committee.

Q.—Did German soldiers really record many of the facts in their diaries?

A.—The German army authorities encouraged the soldiers to keep diaries and among those that fell into the hands of their captors were hundreds which had everything set down with detailed accuracy.

Q.—Were the German countercharges ever proved?

A.—The Belgians denied them indignantly. The German Socialist newspaper *Vorwaerts* said in October 22, 1914, that "whenever inquiries have been made in regard to these reports, their absolute falsity has been demonstrated." The newspaper quotes the medical officer of the Gross Lichterfelde field hospital as saying: "Happily there is no truth whatever in these stories"—told by the Germans.

Q.—Did civilians suffer from the very beginning?

A.—"On August 4 the roads converging upon Liege from northeast, east, and south were covered with German Death's Head Hussars and Uhlans pressing forward to seize the passage over the Meuse. From the very beginning of the operations the civilian population of villages on the line of German advance were made to experience the extreme horrors of war. 'On the 4th of August,' says one witness, 'at Herve' (a village not far from the frontier), 'I saw at about 2 o'clock five Uhlans, followed by a German officer and some soldiers in a motor car, call out to a couple of young fellows about 30 yards away. The young men, being afraid, ran off and the Germans fired and killed one of them named D——.' The murder of this innocent fugitive civilian was a prelude to the burning and pillage of Herve and of other villages in the neighborhood, to the indiscriminate shooting of civilians of both sexes, and to the organized military execution of batches of selected males. At Herve some 50 men escaping from the burning houses were seized, taken outside the town and shot. At Melen, a hamlet west of Herve, 40 men were shot. In one household alone the father and mother (names given) were shot, the daughter died after being repeatedy outraged, and the son was wounded. Nor were children exempt. 'About August 4,' says one witness, 'near Vottem, we were pursuing some Uhlans. I saw a man, woman, and a girl about nine, who had been killed. They were on the threshold of a house, one on the top of the other, as if they had been shot down, one after the other, as they tried to escape.'"—Bryce Committee.

Q.—Were many villages thus destroyed on the way to Liege?

A.—"On August 6 (1914), Battice was destroyed in part. From the 8th to the 10th over 300 houses were burnt at Herve, while mounted men shot into doors and windows to prevent escape of inhabitants.

"At Heure le Romain on or about the 15th of August all the male inhabitants, including some bedridden old men were imprisoned in the church. The burgomaster's brother and the priest were bayoneted.

"On or about the 14th and 15th the village of Visé was completely destroyed. Officers directed the incendiaries, who worked methodically with benzine. Antiques and china were removed from the houses, before their destruction, by officers, who guarded the plunder revolver in hand. The house of a witness, which contained valuables of this kind, was protected for a time by a notice posted on the door by officers. This notice has been produced to the Committee. After the removal of the valuables this house also was burnt.

"German soldiers had arrived on the 15th at Blegny Trembleur and seized a quantity of wine. On the 16th prisoners were taken; four, including the priest and the burgomaster, were shot. On the same day 200 (so-called) hostages were seized at Flémalle and marched off. There they were told that unless Fort Flémalle surrendered by noon they would be shot. It did surrender and they were released."—Bryce Committee.

Q.—What happened at Liege?

A.—The Bryce Committee reports: "A proclamation by General Kolewe gave the German version, that his troops had been fired on by Russian students. A captured German diary states that in the night of August 20 (1914) the inhabitants of Liège became mutinous and that 50 were shot. Belgian witnesses deny that there had been any provocation, some stating that many German soldiers were drunk, others giving evidence which indicates that the affair was planned beforehand. Though the cause is in dispute, the results are known with certainty. The Rue des Pitteurs and houses in the Place de l'Université and the Quai des Pêcheurs were fired with benzine, and many inhabitants were burnt alive, their efforts to escape being prevented by rifle fire. Twenty people were shot while trying to escape. . . . The fire burnt through the night and the murders continued on the following day. Thirty-two civilians were killed on that day in the Place de l'Université alone, and a witness states that this was followed by the rape in open day of 15 or 20 women in the square itself."

Q.—Did the Germans use hostages in their advance?

A.—"August 22 Uhlans reached Montigny-sur-Sambre. On a hill nearby were a detachment of French about 150 to 200 strong. At about 1:30 the main body of the German army began to arrive. Marching with them were two groups of so-called hostages, about 400 in all. Of these, 300 were surrounded with a rope. The French troops opened fire, and immediately the Germans commenced to destroy the town. Incendiaries with a distinctive

badge on their arm went down the main street with pastilles, and about 130 houses were destroyed in the main street. By 10:30 p.m. some 200 more hostages had been collected. These were drawn from Montigny itself, and on that night about 50 men, women, and children were placed on the bridge over the Sambre and kept there all night. The bridge was similarly guarded for a day or two, apparently either from a fear that it was mined or in the belief that these men, women, and children would afford some protection to the Germans in the event of the French attempting to storm the bridge. At one period of the German occupation of Montigny, eight nuns of the Order of Ste. Marie were captives on the bridge. House burning was accompanied by murder, and on Monday morning 27 civilians from one parish alone were seen lying dead in the hospital."—Bryce Committee.

Q.—Was Andenne destroyed on the the same day?

A.—Yes. Andenne on the Meuse was occupied by German troops whose commander pretended that the population had fired on them. Witnesses claim that the firing came from French soldiers holding the opposite bank. Four hundred people are said to have been killed there on August 20 and 21 (1914).

Q.—Do the Germans admit the killings in Andenne?

A.—Yes. They posted a proclamation which, after making the usual show of pretenses that the Belgian civilians had attacked German soldiers, goes on to the following brutal admission:

"With my authorization, the general commanding these troops has reduced the town to ashes and has had one hundred and ten persons shot.

"I bring this fact to the knowledge of the people of Liège in order that they may know what fate to expect should they adopt a similar attitude.

"Liège, 22d August, 1914.

"General von Bulow."

Q.—When did the German army enter Louvain?

A.—On August 15, 1914. Hostages were selected from the notables of the city, among them the burgomaster, the rector of the University, the provincial councillor, aldermen, etc. The walls were at once placarded with notices which the army carried, saying that "in case a single arm be found, no matter in what house, or any hostility be committed against our troops, our transports, our telegraph-lines, our railways, or if any one harbors *franctireurs*, the culpable and the hostages will be shot without mercy. In addition, all the inhabitants of the villages in question will be driven out; the villages and even cities will be demolished and burned. If this happens on the route of communication between two villages the same methods will be applied to the inhabitants of both."

Q.—What are franctireurs?

A.—The term is a survival of the Franco-Prussian War, and describes a civilian or other person not attached to regularly recognized troops who takes to arms or attacks an occupying army.

Q.—When was Louvain destroyed?

A.—The destruction began in the evening of August 25 (1914), and continued through the 26th and 27th.

Q.—Was there any fighting in Louvain?

A.—"For six days (August 19-25) the Germans were in peaceful occupation. No houses were set on fire—no citizens killed. There was a certain amount of looting of empty houses, but otherwise discipline was effectively maintained. The condition of Louvain during these days was one of relative peace and quietude."—Bryce Committee.

Q.—When did the Louvain destruction begin?

A.—"On the evening of August 25 a sudden change takes place. The Germans, on that day repulsed by the Belgians, had re-occupied Louvain. Immediately the devastation and the holocaust of its population commences. The inference is irresistible that the army as a whole wreaked its vengeance for the setback. . . . The depositions are numerous, and are believed by the Committee to present a true and fairly complete picture of the events. We find no grounds for thinking that the inhabitants fired upon the German army. Eye-witnesses worthy of credence detail exactly when, where, and how the firing commenced. Such firing was by Germans on Germans. No impartial tribunal could, in our opinion, come to any other conclusion.

"On the evening of the 25th firing could be heard in the direction of Herent, some three kilometers from Louvain. An alarm

was sounded in the city. There was disorder and confusion, and at 8 o'clock horses attached to baggage wagons stampeded in the street and rifle fire commenced. This was in the Rue de la Station and came from the German police guard (21 in number), who, seeing the troops arrive in disorder, thought it was the enemy. Then the corps of incendiaries got to work. They had broad belts with the words *'Gott mit uns'* and their equipment consisted of a hatchet, a syringe, a small shovel and a revolver. Fires blazed up in the direction of the Law Courts, St Martin's Barracks and later in the Place de la Station. Meanwhile an incessant fusillade was kept up on the windows of the houses."—Bryce Committee.

Q.—When were Louvain Library and University burned?

A.—On August 26, 1914. The University with its library, the Church of St. Peter, and many houses were burned on that day. At the same time Herent, a village of 5,000 inhabitants not far away, was completely burned.

Q.—Did not our official representatives visit Louvain?

A.—On August 28 Secretary of Legation Gibson, a Red Cross representative, and the Swedish Chargé d'Affaires went to Louvain. There still were some houses burning. As Brand Whitlock reports it: "While they were standing in the Rue de la Station talking to a German officer, shots were suddenly fired and the German officer led them to the railway station where for half an hour they took refuge in the freight-depot. During all that time they could hear firing outside. The Germans claimed that they were being fired upon by Belgian civilians from the upper windows of houses in the Rue de la Station, but the Belgians of Louvain always insisted that the firing from the upper windows was done by German soldiers placed there for the purpose of impressing the diplomatic representatives of neutral powers."

Q.—How many people were killed in Louvain?

A.—The figures given by Brand Whitlock are: 210 of both sexes and all ages, from infants of three months to persons of eighty years. Several thousand were arrested. More than six hundred, of whom a hundred were women and children, were deported to Germany.

Q.—Is it true that children were wantonly killed?

A.—"It is clearly shown that many offenses were committed against infants and quite young children. On one occasion children were even roped together and used as a military screen against the enemy, on another three soldiers went into action carrying small children to protect themselves from flank fire. A shocking case of the murder of a baby by a drunken soldier at Malines is thus recorded by one eye-witness and confirmed by another:—

"'I saw eight German soldiers, and they were drunk. They were singing and making a lot of noise and dancing about. As the German soldiers came along the street I saw a small child, whether boy or girl I could not see, come out of a house. The child was about two years of age. The child came into the middle of the street so as to be in the way of the soldiers. . . . One stepped aside and drove his bayonet with both hands into the child's stomach, lifting the child into the air on his bayonet and carrying it away on his bayonet, he and his comrades still singing.'"—Bryce Committee.

Q.—Were officers equally cruel?

A.—"An incident has been recorded which discloses the fact that even sober and highly-placed officers were not always disposed to place a high value on child life. Thus the General, wishing to be conducted to the Town Hall at Lebbeke, remarked in French to his guide, who was accompanied by a small boy: 'If you do not show me the right way I will shoot you and your boy.' There was no need to carry the threat into execution, but that the threat should have been made is significant."—Bryce Committee.

Q.—When was the priest of Gelrode shot?

A.—"In Aerschot fresh prisoners seem to have been added to those already in the church, since it would appear that prisoners were kept to some extent in the church during the whole of German occupation. The second occasion on which large numbers were put there was shortly after the battle of Malines, and it was then that the priest of Gelrode was brought to Aerschot church, treated abominably and finally murdered. . . . Some were actually kept there until the arrival of the Belgian army, on September 11th. Others were marched to Louvain, eventually merged with other prisoners and

taken to Germany and elsewhere. It is said by one witness that about 1,500 were marched to Louvain, and that the journey took six hours. 'We were all marched off to Louvain, walking. There were some very old people, amongst others a man 90 years of age. The very old people were drawn in carts and barrows by the younger men. There was an officer with a bicycle, who shouted, as people fell out by the side of the road, "shoot them."'" —Bryce Committee.

Q.—What two forms of violence were especially significant?

A.—"Two classes of murders require special mention, because one is almost new, and the other altogether unprecedented. The former is the seizure of peaceful citizens as so-called hostages for the conduct of the civil population, to secure some military advantage, or to compel payment of a contribution, the hostages being shot if the condition is not fulfilled. Such hostage taking, with the penalty of death attached, has now and then happened, . . . but it is opposed both to the rules of war and to every principle of justice and humanity. The other is killing innocent inhabitants of a village, because shots have been fired, or are alleged to have been fired, on the troops by someone in the village. For this practice no previous example and no justification has been or can be pleaded. . . . Large bodies of men, sometimes including the burgomaster and the priest, were marched to a spot chosen for the purpose, and there shot in cold blood, without any attempt at trial or even inquiry, under the pretense of inflicting punishment upon the village, though these unhappy victims were not even charged with having themselves committed any wrongful act, and though, in some cases at least, the village authorities had done all in their power to prevent any molestation of the invading force. Such acts are no part of war, for innocence is entitled to respect even in war. They are mere murders, just as the drowning of the innocent passengers and crews on a merchant ship is murder and not an act of war."—Bryce Committee.

Q.—Were civilians actually used as screens?

A.—There were many instances in which children and sometimes military prisoners were used as screens from behind which the Germans could fire on Belgian troops in the hope that the Belgians would not return the fire for fear of killing their own fellow countrymen.

Outside Fort Fléron, near Liège, men and children were marched in front of Germans to prevent Belgian soldiers from firing. On August 22d, half a dozen Belgian colliers were marching in front of German troops who were pursuing the English at Mons, and in the opinion of the witnesses they must have been placed there intentionally. On August 24th, men, women, and children were pushed into the front of the German position outside Mons. A witness told of 16 to 20 women, about a dozen children, and half a dozen men. Other incidents are mentioned as occurring at Malines, Eppeghem, Londerzeel, Termonde, Tournai, etc.

Q.—When was Namur burned?

A.—On August 27. The Germans had entered Namur August 22, 1914. They put it under a rule of terror, proclaiming that its existence depended upon complete absence of "criminal acts against the German army." On August 27 the soldiers began to burn the town. The City Hall and the buildings along a number of avenues were destroyed. Namur paid a contribution of 32 million francs ($6,140,000), and it is said that this alone saved it from the fate of Dinant and Louvain.

Q.—What was the deportation decree?

A.—It was a decree signed by Quartermaster General Sauberzweig, Great Headquarters, October 3, 1916, bearing the absurd title of "Decree concerning limiting the burdens on public charity." It declared: (1) people able to work may be compelled to work outside of the place where they live, if they are dependent on charity for support of themselves or their dependents, because of gambling, drunkenness, loafing, unemployment or idleness; (2) every inhabitant is bound to give assistance in cases of general danger, etc., even outside of the place where he lives; (3) whoever refuses to work when called incurs imprisonment up to 3 years or a fine up to 10,000 marks.

Q.—Had the Belgians been compelled previously to work for the Germans?

A.—Yes. A year before (October 12, 1915) there was issued a decree that: (1) Whoever without reason refuses work suitable to his occupation, and in the execution of which the military administration is interested, will be liable to imprisonment not exceeding one year. He may also be transported to Germany. Invoking Belgian laws or international conventions can in no case justify refusal to

work. On the lawfulness of the work, the military commandant has the sole right of decision. (2) Any person who attempts to influence another to refuse work is liable to imprisonment not exceeding five years. (3) Whoever knowingly abets a punishable refusal to work, will incur a maximum fine of 10,000 marks, and may be condemned to a year's imprisonment. If communes or associations have rendered themselves guilty of such offence the heads of the communes will be punished. (4) In addition, the German authorities may impose fines or coercive police measures on such communes.

Q.—Was this 1915 decree the one that Cardinal Mercier styled slavery?

A.—He said concerning it: "The injustice and arbitrariness of this decree exceed all that could be imagined. Forced labor, collective penalties and arbitrary punishments, all are there. It is slavery, neither more nor less."

Q.—What instances did Cardinal Mercier cite?

A.—He and his colleagues declared that workmen had been forced to labor or had been punished for refusal, citing the following cases: April 27 (1915), 200 workmen forced by soldiers to work in Luttre arsenal; May 4, 24 workmen imprisoned at Nivelles; May 8, 25 sent to Germany; May 14, 45 sent to Germany; May 22, 104 sent toward Charleroi; May 30, Malines punished by cessation of all commercial traffic because 500 workmen had refused to work at the arsenal; commune of Sweveghem punished, June, because 350 workmen refused to make barbed-wire for the army; Harlebeke, October, 29 sent to Germany. Mons, directors, foremen and 81 men imprisoned for refusing to work for the German army.

Q.—What was the origin of the forced labor issue?

A.—It is explained as follows by Brand Whitlock, American Minister to Belgium, in a report to the State Department (January 16, 1917): "At the time we were organizing the relief work (autumn 1914), the Comité National—the Belgian relief organization that collaborates with the Commission for Relief in Belgium—proposed an arrangement by which the Belgian Government should pay to its own employees left in Belgium, and other unemployed men besides, the wages they had been accustomed to receive. The Belgians wished to do this both for humanitarian and patriotic purposes; they wished to provide the unemployed with the means of livelihood, and, at the same time, to prevent their working for the Germans. I refused to be connected in any way with this plan, and told the Belgian committee that it had many possibilities of danger; that not only would it place a premium on idleness, but that it would ultimately exasperate the Germans. However, the policy was adopted, and has been continued in practice, and on the rolls of the Comité National have been borne the names of hundreds of thousands—some 700,000, I believe—of idle men receiving this dole, distributed through the communes."

Q.—Did the Germans resent this?

A.—"The presence of these unemployed, however, was a constant temptation to German cupidity. Many times they sought to obtain the lists of the chômeurs, but were always foiled by the claim that under the guarantees covering the relief work, the records of the Comité National and its various suborganizations were immune. Rather than risk any interruption of the ravitaillement, . . . the authorities never pressed the point, other than with the burgomasters of the communes."—Brand Whitlock.

Q.—Who finally put the labor coercion into effect?

A.—Mr. Whitlock says: "Finally, however, the military party, always brutal, and with an astounding ignorance of public opinion and of moral sentiment, determined to put these idle men to work."

Q.—What happened after the deportation decree?

A.—A vast outburst of grief and indignation all over the world. In Belgium the agony and rage exceeded even the emotion that had been caused by the invasion. Communes, societies, the women of Belgium and Cardinal Mercier addressed touching petitions and remonstrances to the military authorities.

Q.—What did Cardinal Mercier say?

A.—He pointed out first that the promise of the Governor of Antwerp had been subsequently confirmed to him unconditionally by the Governor General, von der Goltz. Secondly, he said that the occupying authorities had suppressed national

labor by seizing and shipping to Germany raw material, machinery, tools and metals of factories. Third, that England would allow raw materials to enter Belgium if the authorities were willing to leave them to Belgian industry and would agree not to seize the finished products. He emphasized the burning point that every Belgian who worked for Germany would free a German worker for the German army.

Q.—Did the United States intervene?

A.—American Embassy officials intervened in Berlin and obtained some ameliorations, such as: (1) only actual unemployed to be taken; (2) selections to be made carefully; (3) deported persons to be permitted communication with their families; (4) places of work to be open to inspection by Spanish representatives (Spain representing Belgium in Berlin); (5) American inspection to be arranged informally if desired.

Q.—Did the United States protest formally?

A.—Yes. On December 5, 1916, the United States laid a formal protest before the Imperial Chancellor, saying that the American government was constrained to "protest in a friendly spirit but most solemnly against this action which is in contravention of all precedent and those humane principles of international practice which have long been accepted and followed by civilized nations in their treatment of non-combatants in conquered territory."

Q.—Did other nations protest?

A.—Spain and Switzerland protested, as did the Pope. Socialist members of the German Reichstag added their unqualified censure.

Q.—How many Belgians were deported?

A.—Mr. Whitlock's report of January 16, 1917, was that so far as he had been able to determine, about 100,000 had been deported and less than 2,000 had been returned. Unofficial estimates have been as high as 300,000 (See under "Ravaged Belgium.")

Q.—What was the moral effect of the deportations?

A.—Brand Whitlock reported that the Germans had dealt a mortal blow at their own chances of being tolerated. He said: "It is conceivable that the Flemish population might have existed under German rule; it was Teutonic in its origin and anti-French always. But now the Germans have changed all that." Until the deportations, the Flemings and the Germans had apparently gotten along peacefully. "The old Germans of the Landsturm had been quartered in Flemish homes. They got along fairly well. They helped the women with their work."

Q.—What words did he use?

A.—He said that the deportation decree was one "of those deeds that make one despair of the future of the human race, a deed coldly planned, studiously matured, and deliberately and systematically executed, a deed so cruel that German soldiers are said to have wept in its execution, and so monstrous that even German officers are now said to be ashamed."

Q.—Were there deportations in France too?

A.—Yes. People were taken from Lille, and many other towns and villages to work in the country, largely in the Ardennes. Between 20,000 and 30,000 were thus sent away and the tragedy was frightfully increased by the fact that many young girls were thus deported. Deportations also were conducted in Poland.

Q.—How did the military machine gradually take over Belgium?

A.—Under von Bissing successive decrees announced: that the powers appertaining to the King of the Belgians would be exercised by the Military Governor-General; the powers appertaining to the Provincial Governors in Belgium would be exercised by Military Governors of the Provinces; that the rôles of Commissioners of Arrondissements would be filled by "Kreischefs" (Chiefs of Districts), etc. On February 5, 1915, von Bissing issued a decree defining the powers of Governors, of Chefs of Arrondissements, etc., and in Article 9 of the decree stated that he reserved to himself the unlimited right to issue such decrees, ordinances and orders, and to take such repressive or disciplinary measures as he considered necessary.

Q.—Were many people persecuted by these courts martial?

A.—Mr. Whitlock says that in one year more than 600,000 persons were condemned to pay fines or to serve in prison, or condemned to hard labor, deportation or death.

Q.—Why did the Germans arrest the Princess de Croy?

A.—They pretended she had aided fugitive British soldiers to pass the Belgian frontier. At the beginning of the war she, with the Countess Jeanne de Belleville, had established a Red Cross hospital in her chateau near Mons, where Belgian, English and German wounded were cared for. The two ladies were of the oldest Belgian families and universally respected and beloved. Their arrest, early in August, 1915, cast an additional black cloud of sorrow over Belgium.

Q.—What had these two ladies done?

A.—Brand Whitlock, in his narrative "Belgium," says: "After the battle of Mons a great many British soldiers, cut off in the retreat, had been left behind in Belgium, and under terrible difficulties and hardships all through winter and spring, had lived the lives of hunted animals in the woods or in the farms of Hainault and Brabant. Near the chateau of the Princess de Croy thirteen British soldiers had hidden in a haystack on a Belgian farm and, tracked down at last by German soldiers, they were taken, stood against the wall and shot without mercy. This atrocity so affected the Princess that she determined to organize a method whereby British soldiers who, finding themselves in a position that in all civilized countries would have entitled them at least to the consideration shown to prisoners of war, could be cared for and if possible got out of the country. And though frail and in delicate health, she and the Countess de Belleville and Madame Thuiliez and certain others organized a system to aid British soldiers who were still hiding and to send them to Brussels where, as she declared in her interrogatory before the military tribunal, she thought they would be less rigorously dealt with than near Mons, which was under the military régime, whereas Brussels was in the territory of the General Government. The Princess declared that she did not know what became of them after they reached Brussels. There, however, others aided them to get across the frontier into Holland."

Q.—Was Edith Cavell arrested at the same time?

A.—Yes. She was arrested on August 5, 1915.

Q.—Was the Princess de Croy tried with Edith Cavell?

A.—The Princess de Croy, the Countess de Belleville, Edith Cavell, and thirty-two others were tried together on October 7, 1915, in secret session, and only the barest facts of that monstrous piece of injustice have ever reached the outer world. Of the thirty-five, twenty-six were condemned—Edith Cavell, the Countess de Belleville, Madame Louis Thuiliez, a Lille school teacher, Phillipe Bancq, a Brussels architect, Louis Severin, a Brussels druggist, and Albert Libiez, a Mons lawyer, being condemned to death; the Princess de Croy, Mrs. Ada Bodart of Brussels, Harman Capiau, a Wasmes civil engineer, and Georges Derveau, a Paturgas pharmacist, being sentenced to 15 years' penal servitude at hard labor; seventeen others sentenced to from two to five years' imprisonment; eight acquitted.

Q.—Were the death-sentences carried out?

A.—Phillipe Bancq was shot at the same time as Edith Cavell. The President of the United States and the King of Spain protested to Berlin and the sentences of the Countess de Belleville, Madame Thuiliez, Louis Severin and Albert Liebiez were commuted to imprisonment. As Mr. Whitlock says: "The thirst for blood had been slaked. . . . The storm of universal loathing and reprobation for the deed was too much even for the Germans."

Q.—Were the German military courts conducted at all like other courts?

A.—No. There were no written charges or specifications. The German officers sitting as judges, received what the "secret police" laid before them, and did not permit the accused to cross-examine these witnesses. An accused person could not call witnesses and even voluntary witnesses had no right to be heard. The lawyer for an accused person had no opportunity to prepare a case, and whatever argument he might make had to be carefully framed to avoid criticism of German soldiers or witnesses for the court.

Q.—What did our Minister at Brussels say of this system of inquiry?

A.—"For one of our Anglo-Saxon race and legal traditions to understand conditions in Belgium during the German occupation it is necessary to banish resolutely from the mind every conception of right we have inherited from our ancestors, conceptions long since crystallized into immutable principles of law and con-

firmed in our charters of liberty. In the German mentality these conceptions do not exist; they think in other sequences, they act according to another principle, if it is a principle, the conviction that there is only one right, one privilege, and that it belongs exclusively to Germany, the right, namely, to do whatever they have the physical force to do."—Brand Whitlock in "Belgium."

Q.—Did the accused have no rights before them at all?

A.—"These so-called courts, of whose irresponsible and brutal nature I have tried to convey some notion, were mere inquisitorial bodies, guided by no principle save that of interest in their own bloody nature; they did as they pleased and would have scorned a Jeffreys as too lenient, a Lynch as too formal, a Spanish *auto da fé* as too technical and a tribunal of the French Revolution as soft and sentimental. Before them the accused had literally no rights, not even to present a defense, and if he was permitted to speak in his own behalf it was only as a generous and liberal favor."—Brand Whitlock in "Belgium."

Q.—What could a lawyer do for the defense?

A.—In the chapter on "The Execution of Edith Cavell" in his book "Belgium," Mr. Whitlock says:

"The defense was not a defense in our meaning of the word. The lawyer was not allowed to see his client before he appeared to plead the case before the court where the accused was arraigned for trial, and he was not permitted to speak to his client during the trial; often he did not know what the accusation was until the trial began, and sometimes he did not know it even then."

Q.—Was there not a grim connection between the murder of Edith Cavell and the "Lusitania" horror?

A.—There was a grim coincidence. The school of graduate nurses in Brussels which Edith Cavell was foremost in conducting had been established by the cooperation of earnest Belgian citizens, foremost of whom were Dr. Depage, one of the leading physicians of Belgium, and his wife. The building was completed in the very month of the *Lusitania* sinking (May, 1915) and among the victims of that atrocity was Madame Depage.

Q.—What was the text of the German ultimatum to Belgium?

A.—It opened with the famous lie that Germany had reliable information of French intention to march through Belgium against Germany and made the following proposals in return for being permitted unhindered crossing of Belgian territory: (1) to guarantee territory and independence of Belgium in full; (2) to evacuate Belgian territory on the conclusion of peace; (3) to purchase supplies for cash and pay for all damage done by German troops. If these proposals were rejected, and Belgium opposed difficulties to German troops, said the ultimatum, Germany would be compelled to view Belgium as an enemy.

Q.—What was the Belgian reply?

A.—The Belgian reply said that France had formally declared that she would not violate Belgian neutrality and that if she did, Belgian troops would resist. After calling attention to the treaty guaranteeing her neutrality, the reply said in part:

"Belgium has always been faithful to her international obligations; she has carried out her duties in a spirit of loyal impartiality and she has left nothing undone to maintain respect for her neutrality. . . . Conscious of the part which Belgium has played for more than eighty years in the civilization of the world, they refuse to believe that the independence of Belgium can only be preserved at the price of the violation of her neutrality.

"If this hope is disappointed the Belgian Government are firmly resolved to repel, by all means in their power, every attack upon their rights."

Q.—When was this reply made?

A.—It was dated August 3, 1914, 7 a.m., that being the end of the twelve-hour period named in the German ultimatum.

Q.—What was the Proclamation to the Belgian army?

A.—On August 5, 1914, King Albert of Belgium addressed the army thus:

"TO THE NATIONAL ARMY!

"*Soldiers*:

"Without the least provocation on our part, a neighbor, glorying in his power, has torn into shreds the treaties that bear his signature and violated the territory of our fathers. . . . Cæsar said of your ancestors: 'Of all the peoples of Gaul the Belgians are the bravest.' Hail to you,

army of the Belgian people! In the face of the enemy, remember that you are fighting for liberty and for your menaced hearths. Remember, men of Flanders, the Battle of the Golden Spurs; and you, Walloons, who now stand on your honor, remember the six hundred Franchimontois.

"Soldiers! I leave Brussels to put myself at your head."

ALBERT.

Q.—Where did the King take the field?

A.—At Louvain, a famous old town in the plain about 15 miles east of Brussels, facing the German advance from the frontier toward the capital.

Q.—Were many German citizens in Belgium when war began?

A.—Brand Whitlock says that there were nearly 5,000 assembled in Brussels alone. They were placed on trains and sent to Germany through Holland.

Q.—How were they treated by the Belgians?

A.—Mr. Whitlock's words are:

"The action of the Belgian Government in this emergency was superb in spirit and in execution and the population nobly generous. Not a German was injured during those days, and no more serious harm was done than that resulting from the breaking of windows in the first ebullition of excitement. The Burgomaster of Brussels, M. Adolphe Max, issued a proclamation appealing to the population to remain calm, while the Minister of the Interior published a statement explaining the laws and customs of war."

Q.—What was the first notice served on Brussels by the invaders?

A.—One of the first placards posted (perhaps the first) was the following:

PROCLAMATION

Brussels, August 20, 1914.

"German troops will pass through Brussels to-day and the following days, and will be obliged by circumstances to call upon the city for lodging, food, and supplies. All these requirements will be settled for regularly through the communal authorities.

"I expect the population to meet these necessities of war without resistance, and especially that there shall be no aggression against our troops, and that the supplies required shall be promptly furnished.

"In this case I give every guarantee for the preservation of the city and the safety of its inhabitants.

"If, however, as has unfortunately happened in other places, there are attacks upon our troops, firing upon our soldiers, fires or explosions of any sort, I shall be obliged to take the severest measures.

"The General Commanding the Army Corps,

"Sixt Von Arnim."

Q.—Who commanded the force that entered Brussels?

A.—General Thaddeus von Jarotsky, Major-General, and Commander of the Sixteenth Infantry Brigade.

Q.—Who succeeded General von Jarotsky in Brussels?

A.—In a few days after the entry into Brussels he turned over his command to General the Baron Arthur von Lüttwitz, who became German Military Governor in Brussels. It must be noted that this is a post different from that of "Governor-General in Belgium," which was established by the Germans to conduct the general administration of the entire occupied territory.

Q.—Who was the first German Governor in Belgium?

A.—General von der Goltz, who organized "the unspeakable Turk" for war.

Q.—What was the first demand made of Brussels?

A.—When the Burgomaster went to meet the Germans, they demanded as hostages the Burgomaster, the members of the Municipal Council and twenty notables. They demanded also a war contribution of 50 million francs ($9,500,000), and great quantities of food and forage.

Q.—What were the details of this negotiation?

A.—Burgomaster Max had told General von Jarotsky that he could not procure the entire sum of 50 million francs. He proposed that he would try to get 1½ million down and within 8 days afterward 18½ millions. He tried to get the whole contribution reduced to 20 millions, and von Jarotsky promised to use his influence to have this done. The contribution was finally reduced slightly—to 45 millions.

Q.—How was this money to be raised?

A.—It was to be raised by the various "communes" of Brussels. The "Agglomération brouxelloise" (which means practically "Greater Brussels") is made up of 15 communes, each with its own burgomaster. The burgomaster of the Commune of Brussels, that being the old historic Brussels, has always been considered the head of the whole city. These communes arranged among themselves that the Commune of Brussels should pay 20 millions while the other communes raised 30 millions pro rata to each commune according to population.

Q.—Were the payments made?

A.—The Commune of Brussels made its payments promptly and regularly, so that by September 30, 1914, it had only 4½ million francs still to pay. The other communes, however, had failed to raise their quota of 30 millions, and the Commune of Brussels did not have enough funds to make the deficit good.

Q.—What did the Germans do when the payments were not made?

A.—They issued this official notice:

"The German Government had ordered the cash payment of requisition, naturally believing that the city would voluntarily pay the whole of the forced payment (contribution de guerre) imposed upon it.

"It was only this condition that could justify the favored treatment enjoyed by Brussels, as distinguished from the other cities of Belgium which will not have their requisition orders settled until after the conclusion of peace.

"Inasmuch as the city administration of Brussels refuses to settle the remainder of the forced payment, from this day forward no requisition will be settled in cash by the Government treasury.

"The Military Governor,
"Baron von Lüttwitz,
"Major-General."

Brussels, September 26, 1914.

Q.—What did the authorities of Brussels do?

A.—Burgomaster Max instructed M. Dufaire, Director of the Deutsche Bank in Brussels, not to pay the certificates of indebtedness which the city had given to the German authorities to be collected September 30, adding that this was done in reply to the Governor-General's proclamation.

Q.—How did the Germans respond to Max's action?

A.—They ordered his arrest on September 26, 1914, and posted the following placard in Brussels:

"Notice—Burgomaster Max having failed to fulfil the engagements entered into with the German Government, I am forced to suspend him from his position.

"Monsieur Max will be held in honorable detention in a fortress.

"The Military Governor,
"Baron von Lüttwitz,
"General."

Brussels, September 26, 1914.

He was sent to Namur and later to Germany.

Q.—Did American officials try to save Max from arrest?

A.—Yes. Brand Whitlock and the Spanish Minister interceded with General von Lüttwitz. The General said that he had no choice, as it was the third official difficulty they had had. He said that Max had become too popular and that "the popularity had gone to his head." Brand Whitlock reports that he said:

"I said this to him the other day: 'Monsieur Max, do you know what I think you are trying to do? I think you are trying to become the first president of the Belgian Republic!'"

The three difficulties to which he referred were a certain placard about the flags, another denying an assertion of the Commandant at Liège, and finally the order to the bank to cease payment of contributions.

Q.—Had display of Belgian flags been prohibited in Brussels?

A.—They had been flown without interference for some weeks, but then the following order was posted:

"The population of Brussels, understanding well its own interests, has generally, since the arrival of the German troops, maintained order and quiet. For this reason, I have not yet forbidden the display of Belgian flags, which is regarded as a provocation by the German troops living in or passing through Brussels. Purely in order to avoid having our troops led to acting on their own initiative, I now call upon houseowners to take down their Belgian flags.

"The Military Government, in putting this measure into effect, has not the slightest intention of wounding the susceptibilities and dignity of the citizens. It is in-

tended solely to protect the citizens against harm.

"Baron von Lüttwitz,
General and Governor."

Brussels, September 16, 1914.

The burgomaster posted a placard at once, urging the people to obey; but the Germans pretended certain of his phrases were offensive, and Mr. Max was placed under arrest for a short period.

Q.—What placard did Burgomaster Max post denying German assertions?

A.—"Affiches," (meaning proclamations and bulletins) became a daily and important part of the city's life. The Germans posted not only official orders, but accounts of battles and other news which they wanted to speed. These placards were in three languages, German, French and Flemish. On August 30, 1914, ten days after the German entry, Burgomaster Max created a sensation by causing a placard to be posted with the following:

CITY OF BRUSSELS

The German Governor of the City of Liège, Lieutenant-General von Kolewe, has caused to be published the following notice:

"To the inhabitants of the City of Liège:

"The Burgomaster of Brussels has informed the German Commander that the French Government has notified the Belgian Government of the impossibility of assisting it offensively in any manner in view of the fact that it finds itself compelled to take the defensive.

"To this affirmative I oppose the most formal denial.

"The Burgomaster,
"Adolphe Max."

Brussels, August 30, 1914.

Q.—Did the Germans assume local government of Brussels after Max was removed?

A.—No. Monsieur Lemmonier, a Brussels lawyer and ranking Alderman, was induced by Mr. Whitlock and the Spanish Minister to assume the position of Active Burgomaster, and General von Lüttwitz announced that he wished the aldermen and the Brussels police to continue at their posts.

Q.—When did von Bissing become Governor-General in Belgium?

A.—In November, 1914. He succeeded General von der Goltz, who returned to Turkey.

Q.—How old was von Bissing?

A.—He was 70 years old and is described by Mr. Whitlock as "old and thin, with thick graying black hair brushed straight back from his forehead and plastered down as with water or with oil on the curiously shaped head that was so straight and sheer behind. His face was hard and its leathern skin, wrinkled and old and weather-beaten, was remorselessly shaved as to chin and throat and high lean cheeks, leaving the thick, heavy mustache of a Prussian *Reiter* to hide somewhat the thin lips of the stern mouth and then flow on, growing across his cheeks to bristle up fiercely by his ears."

Q.—What was von Bissing's first important act of authority?

A.—It was a decree issued December 10, imposing on the population of Belgium a contribution of war of 480 million francs ($92,640,000), for the year, payable monthly.

Q.—How did this decree read?

A.—*"Order—There is imposed on the population of Belgium a war contribution amounting to forty million francs payable monthly for the period of a year.*

"The payment of these amounts is given in charge of the nine provinces, who are held as jointly and separately liable for it.

"The two first monthly payments must be made not later than January 15, 1915, and the succeeding monthly payments not later than the tenth of each month following, at the treasury office of the field army of the General Imperial Government in Brussels.

"In cases where the provinces may have recourse to the issuing of obligations in order to procure the necessary funds, the form and tenure of the notes shall be determined by the General Imperial Commissary for the banks of Belgium."

Q.—Did this contribution include Brussels?

A.—Yes, because Brussels is part of Belgium. The Brussels authorities pro-

tested on the ground that it thus made the 750,000 people of that city pay an additional contribution.

Q.—Were other contributions laid on Brussels?

A.—On January 16, 1915, the Governor-General imposed on those Belgians who had fled from the country a tax equivalent to ten times the regular personal tax. This, also, naturally took in citizens of Brussels who had fled.

Q.—Were there fines in addition?

A.—Brussels was fined 500,000 marks for refusing to repair the road between Brussels and Malines. There were many sums levied on the communes for damages claimed to have been sustained by German citizens when war was declared. Mons was fined about $120,000 for violation of news censorship. One of the heaviest fines was nearly a million dollars laid on Brussels early in the occupation.

Q.—What was this heavy fine for?

A.—Two Belgian policemen got into a fight with a German secret-service agent who, as they explained, had not said who he was. The result was that one policeman was condemned to five years' and the other to three years' imprisonment, and the city of Brussels was "punished by an additional fine of Five Million Francs ($965,000)."

Q.—How much did Germany exact from Belgium altogether?

A.—On August 6, 1918, Lord Robert Cecil, Assistant Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, said during a speech in the House of Commons that altogether the Germans had levied war contributions of 2 billions, 330 millions francs on Belgium, not counting big fines that had been levied on communities, firms and individuals. In American money this represents $449,690,000. The total of Belgium's damages has not been exactly computed. The Belgian Government has estimated damages of one billion 500 million but states that these do not represent the total of Belgium's material losses.

Q.—How much did Brussels have to supply in provisions?

A.—When the German army entered, Brussels had to supply daily about 10,000 pounds wheat, 5,000 pounds sugar, and 36,000 pounds oats.

Q.—What did the Germans requisition elsewhere?

A.—In various places the recorded requisitions were: $50,000 (Louvain), and $800,000 (Malines) worth preserved vegetables; Middleburg (850 inhabitants), 50 cows, 185 pigs, 25,000 pounds oats, 50,000 pounds wheat, 25,000 pounds beans, 75,000 pounds straw.

Q.—What was seized at Antwerp?

A.—Oil-cake amounting to 40,000 tons; 3 million dollars' worth cereals; $800,000 worth nitrate; $400,000 oils; $600,000 worth petroleum; $1,200,000 worth wool; $4,000,000 worth copper; $300,000 worth horse hair; $250,000 worth wine. The figures are roughly correct. The total of the Antwerp requisition is said to have been 16½ million dollars.

Q.—When did Cardinal Mercier issue his famous pastoral letter?

A.—It was issued from Malines on Christmas, 1914, and it was appointed to be read in all the Belgian churches on the first Sunday in January, 1915.

Q.—What was this letter?

A.—It was an exhortation to the people to be patient, though he made it plain that the governing powers then in the land were not there by right and that their authority was only temporary. It enumerated the wrongs that had been done to Belgium. The letter was one of the most impressive utterances that had been made in the occupied country, and it impressed and touched the entire world deeply.

Q.—What did he say of Belgium's sufferings?

A.—"By thousands have our brave ones been mown down; wives, mothers, are weeping for those they shall not see again; hearths are desolate; dire poverty spreads, anguish becomes more bitter. At Malines, at Antwerp, the people of two great cities have been given over, the one for six hours, the other for thirty-four hours of continuous bombardment, to the throes of death. I have traversed the greater part of the districts most terribly devastated in my diocese and the ruins I beheld, and the ashes, were more dreadful than I, prepared as I was by the saddest of forebodings, could have imagined. Other parts of my diocese, which I have not yet had time to visit, have in like manner been laid waste.

Churches, schools, asylums, hospitals, convents in great number, are in ruins. Entire villages have all but disappeared."

Q.—Did he enumerate the afflicted places?

A.—Yes. He enumerated them thus: "Werchter-Wackerzeel, for instance, out of 380 homes 130 remain; at Tremeloo, two-thirds of the village was razed to the ground; at Bueken out of 100 houses 20 are standing; at Schaffen 189 houses out of 200 are destroyed—11 still stand. At Louvain, a third part of the city has been destroyed; 1,074 dwellings have disappeared; on the town land and in the suburbs, Kessel-Loo, Hérent and Herverlé, together 1,828 houses have been burnt." He named altogether 57 towns and villages that had been devastated.

Q.—How many people did he charge had been killed or deported?

A.—"Thousands of Belgian citizens have been deported to prisons of Germany, Munsterlagen, Celle, Magdeburg. At Munsterlagen alone 3,100 civil prisoners were numbered. Hundreds of innocent men were shot. I possess no complete necrology; but I know that there were 91 shot at Aerschot, and that there, under pain of death, their fellow-citizens were compelled to dig their graves. In the Louvain group of communes 176 persons, men and women, old men and sucklings, rich and poor, in health and sickness, were shot or burnt."

Q.—Did he say that priests had been killed?

A.—"In my diocese alone, I know that 13 priests or religious were put to death. One of these, the parish priest of Gelrode, suffered, I believe, a veritable martyrdom. There were to my actual personal knowledge more than 30 in the dioceses of Namur, Tournai and Liege."

Q.—Was the pastoral letter read in the Belgian churches?

A.—The letter was read in all the pulpits. A few hours later many of the priests who had read it were arrested, several of them in Brussels, among them the Doyen of the collegiate of Ste. Gudule. After an interchange of letters between the Cardinal and von Bissing, the latter called on the Cardinal, who refused to retract or modify the statements.

Q.—What did Von Bissing do then?

A.—He sent an order to the priests of the diocese of Malines prohibiting a second reading of the letter and its circulation. The Cardinal declared that he had not assented to a withdrawal of any of his instructions, and the letter was read again on the following Sunday.

Q.—Was the Cardinal arrested?

A.—He was ordered to remain within the confines of his ecclesiastical palace in Malines.

Q.—How did the Belgians treat German soldiers who fell in their hands?

A.—Hugh Gibson, Secretary of the American Legation, thus describes what he saw in Brussels when three hundred German prisoners were brought in. "The crowd, mindful of the things the Germans have been doing to this little country, were in no friendly mood, but did nothing violent. There was only a small guard of Belgian Garde Civique to escort the prisoners, but there were no brickbats or vegetables. The people limited themselves to hoots and catcalls and hisses—which were pretty thick. And even this was frowned upon by the authorities. Within a couple of hours the Military Governor had posted a proclamation begging the people of Antwerp to maintain a more dignified attitude and to refrain from any hostile demonstration against other prisoners. This batch was surrounded and caught at Aerschot, where the Germans are said to have committed all sorts of atrocities."—From "A Journal of Our Legation in Belgium."

Q.—What was the secret newspaper published in Belgium?

A.—It was called "La Libre Belgique," and it began to appear soon after German occupation began. It consisted of four pages and said what it liked about the "Occupant." It published news and texts barred from the censored press. It was distributed in a secret way that baffled the Germans, although they detailed their cleverest secret service men and spies to the task of discovering those responsible for its publication. Every number was delivered to the important German officials in Brussels, and, more remarkable still, it appeared, without fail, in the house of the German Governor-General himself.

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE GREAT WAR

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1914

June 28.—The Austrian Archduke, Francis Ferdinand, is murdered at Serajevo, Bosnia, by a Serbian.

July 23.—Austria-Hungary sends an ultimatum to Serbia.

July 25.—Serbia agrees to most of the demands of Austria-Hungary, and asks arbitration of the rest.

July 28.—Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.

July 31.—Germany demands that Russia cease its mobilization.

August 1.—Germany declares war on Russia.

August 2.—German troops enter the neutral Duchy of Luxemburg.

Belgium refuses free passage of German troops.

August 3.—Germany declares war on France.

German troops enter Belgium, meeting with stubborn resistance.

August 4.—Great Britain declares war on Germany.

August 6.—Austria-Hungary declares war on Russia.

August 8.—The first British troops are landed in France; French troops cross the German frontier into Alsace-Lorraine.

August 15-23.—French armies are forced to retire after engagements at Morhange (Alsace-Lorraine) and at Neufchateau and Charleroi (Belgium).

August 16.—Japan demands the German possessions at Kiau-chau, China.

August 19.—The German Army occupies Liége, having been delayed two weeks by Belgian resistance.

August 20.—Germans occupy Brussels.

August 23.—The British at Mons (Belgium), holding left wing, are attacked by a superior force and compelled to join in retreat of whole Allied line.

Japan declares war on Germany.

August 26—Louvain is destroyed as punishment for an alleged attack by Belgian citizens on German troops.

August 28.—British and German warships meet in the first naval engagement in Heligoland Bight; five small German vessels are destroyed.

A **Russian army** invading East Prussia is disastrously defeated at Tannenberg.

September 2.—A Russian army invading the Austrian province of Galicia occupies Lemberg after decisively defeating the Austrians.

September 3.—The seat of the French Government is transferred to Bordeaux.

September 5.—Great Britain, France, and Russia agree not to conclude separate peace.

September 6-10.—In the **Battle of the Marne**, the French defeat the Germans, stop the march toward Paris and force a hasty retreat.

September 12.—The German retreat is halted at River Aisne, from Soissons to Argonne forest; trench warfare begins.

September 20.—The "race to the sea" is begun—the rival armies in France endeavoring to turn each other's western flank, and the intrenched line mounts northward from the Oise to the North Sea.

The famous Cathedral at Rheims, France, is wrecked by German guns.

September 22.—Three British cruisers are sunk in the North Sea by a German submarine.

October 9.—Antwerp is occupied by Germans after ten days' bombardment; the Belgian army escapes.

October 16-28.—In the **Battle of the Yser**, German attempt to sweep down Belgian coast is blocked chiefly by flooding of rivers and canals.

October 20-November 11.—The **first Battle of Ypres** results in loss of territory by British and French, but in failure of Germany's attempt to reach Channel ports.

October 29.—Turkey enters the war as an ally of Germany and Austria-Hungary, bombarding Russian ports on Black Sea.

November 1.—A **naval engagement** is fought off coast of Chile; two British cruisers are sunk by the German fleet.

November 7.—The Japanese capture Tsing-tau, the fortified portion of German possessions at Kiau-chau.

November 9.—The British War Secretary announces that 1,250,000 men are in training in England.

November 15.—The deadlock on the western front begins, destined to last, with little change, for years.

December 6.—The Germans occupy Lodz, Poland, after six weeks of sanguinary fighting during which both German and Russian armies in turn faced disaster.

December 8.—The **German Pacific fleet is destroyed** by a British squadron near the Falkland Islands; four German warships are sunk and one escapes.

December 14.—Austrians evacuate Belgrade and all Serbia, after a severe defeat.

December 16.—German cruisers bombard cities on east coast of England.

December 17.—Great Britain declares Egypt to be a British protectorate, terminating suzerainty of Turkey.

December 26—The United States protests to Great Britain against seizure and detention of cargoes for neutral ports.

1915

January 3-4.—Russian armies defeat Turkish forces in the Caucasus.

January 16.—Russian armies begin to pass over Carpathians from Galicia into plains of Hungary.

January 24.—A **naval engagement** is fought in the North Sea **off Dogger Bank**, between powerful British and German fleets, ending in a British victory.

January 26.—The German Government seizes all corn, wheat, and flour—the beginning of a rationing system.

January 30.—German submarines sink several British merchant ships.

February 2.—Great Britain decides to seize grain and flour shipments to Germany.

February 4.—**Germany declares a submarine war zone** around the British Isles, after February 18, and announces that enemy merchant ships will be destroyed; neutral vessels are warned of danger.

February 10.—**The United States protests to Germany** against risks created by German war zone decree—the "strict accountability" note.

The United States protests to Great Britain against use of American flags on British vessels.

February 12.—A second **Russian** invasion of East Prussia comes to an end, after a disastrous **defeat in the Masurian Lake region.**

February 16.—Germany offers to withdraw war-zone decree if Great Britain permits movement of foodstuffs to civil population of Germany.

February 18.—The German war zone decree becomes effective; Germany disclaims responsibility for accidents to neutral vessels.

February 19-20.—British and French warships bombard Turkish forts at entrance to Dardanelles.

February 20.—The United States sends an identic note to Great Britain and Germany, suggesting agreement on (1) Britain's interference with food for German civilians and (2) German submarine methods.

February 20-23—Two American steamships are sunk by mines in North Sea.

March 1.—Premier Asquith announces Great Britain's intention to prevent commodities of any kind from reaching or leaving Germany.

March 10.—The British employ for first time massed artillery fire preliminary to an infantry advance; they occupy Neuve Chapelle, but fail to win road to Lille.

The German converted cruiser "Prinz Eitel Friedrich" enters Hampton Roads, after a seven months' commerce-destroying voyage from China.

March 14.—The German cruiser "Dresden" (which escaped from Falklands battle) is sunk by British warships off Chile.

March 19.—One French and two British battleships are sunk by floating mines while bombarding forts in the **Dardanelles**, ending the attempt to force a passage without support from land.

March 21.—A third Russian invasion of East Prussia is brought to an end, by a defeat at Memel.

March 22.—The Austrian fortress of **Przemysl** is surrendered to the **Russians**, after a long siege, with 130,00 prisoners.

April 5.—Russia announces capture of Carpathian positions on a 75-mile front.

April 11.—The German converted cruiser "Kronprinz Wilhelm" enters Hampton Roads, having remained at sea eight months.

April 21.—Britain's army in active service is officially said to be 750,000.

April 22-May 8.—In the **Second Battle of Ypres** the Germans gain ground north of that gained in the first battle, but again fail to break through the British line; they employ asphyxiating gas for the first time.

April 25.—Anglo-French troops are landed on both sides of the Dardanelles, after suffering heavy casualties.

May 1.—A Russian army is destroyed in the **Battle of the Dunajec** (east of Cracow), and other Russian armies in the Carpathians are forced to retreat hastily.

May 7.—The **"Lusitania"** is sunk by a German submarine without warning; 1,154 persons lose their lives, including 114 Americans.

May 12.—A British commission investigating charges of German cruelty in Belgium reports deeds unparalleled in three centuries of civilized warfare.

May 13.—The United States protests to Germany against its submarine policy culminating in sinking of "Lusitania," and declares that it will not omit any word or act necessary to maintain the rights of its citizens.

May 23.—**Italy enters the war**, against Austria-Hungary only.

May 25-27.—Two British battleships are sunk by a German submarine in the Dardanelles.

June 3.—**Russian** forces evacuate Przemysl and continue the **retreat in Galicia.**

June 8.—The American Secretary of State, William J. Bryan, resigns.

June 9.—The United States sends a second note to Germany relating to the "Lusitania."

June 11.—Italian forces occupy Gradisca, in an advance toward Trieste.

June 29.—Austria-Hungary protests to United States against supplying war materials to Allies.

July 5.—The Austro-German movement against Russians ends—having blocked the threatened invasion of Hungary and practically cleared Austria of Russians.

July 8.—Germany offers safety to United States vessels in submarine zone under specified conditions.

July 9.—German Southwest Africa is surrendered to union of South Africa troops under General Botha.

July 15.—Germany admits that American steamer "Nebraskan" was damaged by torpedo from a German submarine.

July 21.—The United States declares Germany's submarine proposal to be "very unsatisfactory," and states that further incidents will be regarded as "deliberately unfriendly."

July 25.—The American steamer "Leelanaw," carrying contraband, is sunk by a German submarine, warning being given.

August 4.—German troops occupy Warsaw, capital of Russian Poland, after a swift encircling advance over vast territory, from north, west and south.

August 7.—Additional British troops are landed on Gallipoli Peninsula, at Suvla Bay, in an unsuccessful attempt to flank the Turks.

August 15.—The British Government registers all persons in the United Kingdom between ages of 15 and 65.

August 16-20.—The Germans fail in attempt to enter the Gulf of Riga, losing several small vessels.

August 17-September 20.—The Germans capture Kovno, Brest-Litovsk, Grodno, Vilna, and other fortresses on Russia's second line of defense.

August 19.—The "Arabic" is sunk by a German submarine on way to New York; twenty passengers (including several Americans) being drowned.

August 21.—Italy declares war on Turkey.

The British Government declares cotton absolute contraband.

September 1.—The German Ambassador at Washington declares that hereafter liners will not be sunk by German submarines without warning.

September 7.—The Russian Grand Duke Nicholas is displaced from command of all Russian armies.

September 9.—**The United States demands recall** of Austro-Hungarian Ambassador, Dr. **Dumba.**

September 20.—The Bulgarian army is mobilized.

September 23.—**The Greek army is mobilized.**

September 25.—**The French** undertake an **offensive** in **Champagne** region, which gains ground but fails to break through the German line.

Anglo-French troops north and south of Lens gain ground in an offensive designed principally to aid the French attack in Champagne; but the British, at Loos, suffer heavy losses.

October 3.—Russia demands that Bulgaria expel German and Austrian officers.

October 4.—Allied forces are landed at Salonica, Greece, to help Serbia resist a threatened Austro-German invasion.

October 5.—Germany regrets the "Arabic" sinking, and declares similar incidents impossible.

Premier Venizelos of Greece resigns, his war policy being supported by Deputies but vetoed by King.

October 7.—Austro-German armies begin an **invasion of Serbia.**

October 11.—**Bulgaria,** invading Serbia, **enters the war** as an ally of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey; the Serbians are obliged to withdraw to south and west.

October 12.—Edith Cavell, an English nurse at Brussels, is shot by German military authorities, for assisting enemies of Germany to escape from Belgium.

October 15.—The Greek Government refuses to help Serbia, although bound by a defensive treaty.

October 21.—The United States, in a second protest against detention of cargoes for neutral ports, declares Britain's blockade "ineffective, illegal, and indefensible."

October 28.—Aristide **Briand** (Socialist) succeeds Viviani as **Premier of France.**

November 9.—The Italian passenger steamer "Ancona" is sunk in the Mediterranean by an Austrian submarine.

November 11.—A War Council is formed in Great Britain.

November 19.—A British expeditionary force in Mesopotamia is defeated at **Ctesiphon,** near Bagdad.

November 28.—Germany declares the campaign against Serbia at a close, practically the entire country being overrun by Austro-German and Bulgarian armies and the Serbian army being half dispersed, half annihilated.

December 1.—Italy joins in Allied agreement not to conclude a separate peace.

December 3.—The United States requests the recall of German naval and military attachés at Washington.

December 6.—The United States protests to Austria-Hungary against the "wanton slaughter of defenseless noncombatants" on the "Ancona."

December 9.—Chancellor von Beth-

mann-Hollweg informs Reichstag Socialists that Germany cannot propose peace without indicating weakness, but is ready to discuss Entente proposals.

December 15.—General Sir Douglas Haig becomes commander-in-chief of British armies in France and Belgium, succeeding Sir John French.

December 30.—Austria announces that the submarine commander who torpedoed the "Ancona" has been punished.

1916

January 4.—The United States protests to Great Britain against interference with American mails to and from neutral countries.

January 9.—British and French forces withdraw from Gallipoli Peninsula, and the attempt to force the Dardanelles is abandoned.

January 11-17.—Montenegro is overrun by Austro-Hungarian armies.

January 24-27.—A compulsory service bill applicable to unmarried men between 18 and 41 passes British House of Commons and House of Lords, and receives royal assent.

February 1.—The British passenger steamer "Appam" is brought into Hampton Roads, Va., by a German prize crew.

February 10.—Germany and Austria announce that they will treat armed enemy merchant ships as war vessels.

February 16.—The Turkish fortress at Erzerum, Armenia, is captured by Russians.

February 21.—The Germans launch a great offensive at Verdun, destined to last until August, but to fail in the attempt to break through French line.

February 26.—Austrian armies force Italians to evacuate Durazzo, Albania.

March 8.—Germany declares war on Portugal, for breaches of neutrality.

March 15.—Admiral von Tirpitz, foremost advocate of submarine ruthlessness, resigns as German Minister of Marine.

March 24.—The British Channel steamer "Sussex" is torpedoed without warning by a German submarine.

April 3.—The French make their first important counter-attack at Verdun.

April 18.—The United States warns Germany that unless present methods of submarine warfare are abandoned, diplomatic relations will be severed.

April 20.—Russian troops are landed in France.

April 22.—A German attempt to land arms and ammunition in Ireland is thwarted; Sir Roger Casement, Irish nationalist leader, is taken prisoner.

April 24.—A revolution breaks out in Dublin, Ireland, led by members of Sinn Fein society; suppressed within a week, casualties on both sides totalling 304 killed and 1,000 wounded; sixteen leaders are convicted of treason and shot.

April 28.—A besieged British army of 9,000, under General Townshend, surrenders to the Turks at Kut-el-Amara upon exhaustion of food; thus the first British attempt to reach Bagdad fails.

May 4.—Germany informs United States that submarine commanders have been ordered not to sink merchant vessels without warning and without saving lives.

May 17.—An Austrian offensive causes Italians to withdraw in Trentino.

May 24.—The United States again protests to Great Britain and France against interference with mails at sea, declaring it can no longer be tolerated.

May 25.—The British Government's new compulsory military service bill, applicable to men between 18 and 41, receives royal assent.

May 31.—British and German fleets meet off Jutland (Denmark) in the greatest naval engagement of history, the Germans finally withdrawing; British admit loss of six large cruisers and eight destroyers; Germans admit loss of a battleship, a battle cruiser, four light cruisers, and five destroyers; 9,500 lives are lost.

June 4.—A Russian offensive is begun on front of 250 miles in Volhynia, Galicia, and Bukowina; the Russians later claiming 200,000 prisoners in three weeks.

June 5.—Earl Kitchener, British Minister of War, on his way to Russia is drowned by the sinking of cruiser "Hampshire" by mine or torpedo.

June 6.—Continued German assaults at Verdun (beginning in February) result in capture of Fort Vaux.

June 14.—An Economic Conference of the Allies is held at Paris.

June 16.—The Austrian offensive against Italy ends, and an Italian counter-offensive is begun.

June 28.—Karl Liebknecht, German Socialist, is sentenced to thirty months' imprisonment for peace activities.

July 1.—A great Allied offensive is launched by British and French, at River Somme—to last until November, to gain ground, but to fail in its larger purpose.

July 9.—The German commercial submarine "Deutschland," arrives at Baltimore, having crossed the Atlantic with cargo of chemicals—returning on August 23 with gold, nickel and rubber.

July 23.—Great Britain replies to United States mail protest, upholding efficiency of methods.

July 26.—The United States protests to Great Britain against blacklisting of certain firms and individuals.

August 3.—Sir Roger Casement is hanged at London for treason in promoting the Irish rebellion.

August 7-9.—Italian troops capture Goriz.a, in a brilliant attack.

August 27.—Italy declares war on Germany.

Rumania enters the war and begins an invasion of Transylvania, Hungary.

August 29.—Field Marshal von **Hindenburg** succeeds General von Falkenhayn as German **Chief of Staff.**

September 4.—Bulgarian and German troops invade Dobrudja, Rumania, overrunning the whole district by January.

September 14.—The British use for first time (in the Somme battle) the "tank" or armored and armed motor truck, capable of crossing trenches and demolishing obstacles.

October 8.—**The German war submarine "U-53" sinks six European merchant steamships off Nantucket.**

October 11-16.—Greece's fleet is taken over by Allied fleet; the government of Venizelos is recognized.

October 24.—The French at Verdun regain important positions lost to Germans from February to June.

November 1.—The German merchant submarine **"Deutschland"** arrives at New London, Conn., on a second voyage, returning safely on December 10.

November 5.—A new Kingdom of Poland is proclaimed by Germany and Austria, confined to territory conquered from Russia.

November 7.—Cardinal Mercier, of Belgium, issues protests to civilized world against deportation of Belgian citizens for forced labor in Germany.

November 19.—After decisively defeating Rumanians in Transylvania, **German** armies begin an **invasion of Rumania;** Buchafest, the capital, is reached on December 6.

November 21.—Francis-Joseph, Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, **dies** at Vienna; he is succeeded by his grand-nephew Charles I.

Dr. Aldred Zimmermann succeeds Von Jagow as Minister of Foreign Affairs in Germany.

December 6.—David **Lloyd George** becomes **Premier of Great Britain,** succeeding Asquith.

December 12.—Germany offers to enter into **peace negotiations;** the offer is later declared by the ten Allies to be "empty and insincere."

General **Nivelle succeeds Joffre** as Commander-in-Chief of the French armies.

December 18.—President Wilson sends a note to the belligerent nations, suggesting an avowal of respective views regarding peace terms.

December 21.—Secretary Lansing declares that the United States is "drawing nearer to the verge of war," later denying change of neutral policy is contemplated.

December 26.—Germany replies to President Wilson's note, proposing a meeting of peace delegates, but failing to state war aims or peace terms.

1917

January 10.—The Entente Governments reply to President Wilson's note, stating general peace terms, which include restoration, reparation, and indemnity.

January 22.—President Wilson addresses United States **Senate on peace:** "It must be a peace without victory"; there should be an independent and autonomous Poland; outlets to sea should be neutralized and the seas should be free; military and naval armaments must be limited.

January 31.—Germany resumes **unrestricted submarine war,** declaring that "from February 1, 1917, sea traffic will be stopped with every available weapon and without further notice" [without warning]; American passenger ships may sail once a week under prescribed conditions.

The British Secretary of State for the Colonies declares that captured colonies will never return to German rule.

February 3.—**The United States severs diplomatic relations with Germany.**

February 4.—President Wilson invites neutral nations to take action against Germany similar to that taken by United States.

February 13.—Denmark, Norway, and Sweden present an identic note to Germany refusing to recognize the submarine blockade as legal.

February 22.—A fleet of seven Netherlands steamers is destroyed by a German submarine, after having been assured of "relative safety."

February 23.—Great Britain inaugurates drastic measures to meet the food crisis by increasing home production and curtailing imports.

February 25.—Kut-el-Amara, in Mesopotamia, is captured by British (after a campaign begun on December 13), retrieving the surrender of April, 1916.

February 26.—President Wilson asks Congress for authority to arm merchant ships.

February 27.—Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg declares in German Reichstag that the United States has submitted to isolation from Germany while guarding the right of its citizens to trade with and travel in France and England.

February 28.—A proposal from Zimmermann, German Foreign Secretary, becomes known, looking to alliance with

1917 (Continued)

Mexico in event of war with United States, and also suggesting Japanese participation; Mexico to receive financial support and to be compensated with New Mexico, Texas, and Arizona.

March 2-3.—Japan and Mexico deny that any proposal was received from Germany to join in a war against United States; Herr Zimmermann defends his plan, as operative only in event of war.

March 11.—A revolution breaks out in Petrograd, Russia, the disturbances beginning over shortage of food, with sympathetic strikes in munition factories and finally with mutiny of troops; the Duma assumes direction of the movement.

Bagdad, most important city of Mesopotamia and terminus of Germany's railway project, is captured by British troops.

March 12.—The United States announces that it has decided to arm merchant vessels.

March 15.—Czar Nicholas abdicates the throne of Russia; Prince Lvoff becomes Premier.

March 17-19.—The Germans withdraw before the British, evacuating 1,300 square miles of French territory, from Arras to Soissons, including Bapaume.

Alexandre Ribot succeeds Briand as Premier of France.

March 26.—The United States refuses to interpret and supplement the Prussian treaty of 1799, with reference to status of enemy residents.

March 27.—A British expedition in the Holy Land defeats the Turks near Gaza.

March 31-April 2.—The British and French capture a score of French villages near St. Quentin, where the German withdrawal had stopped.

April 2.—President Wilson asks Congress to declare that recent acts of German Imperial Government are in fact war; the Senate adopts the war resolution, 82 to 6, on April 4; the House, 373 to 50, on April 6.

April 5.—Russian troops advancing from Persia effect a junction with the British army in Asia Minor.

April 6.—The United States enters the war against Germany; ninety German vessels (600,000 tons) are seized.

April 7.—Cuba and Panama follow the United States and declare war against Germany.

The German Emperor directs the Chancellor to assist in obtaining franchise reforms for the people.

April 8.—Austria informs the United States that it has decided to sever diplomatic relations.

April 9-May 3.—The British launch an offensive against the German lines near Arras, carrying Vimy Ridge, gaining three to five miles, and piercing the famous Hindenburg line.

April 11.—Brazil severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

April 13.—Bolivia severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

April 16-May 6.—The French launch an offensive against the German line along the Aisne, advancing on a front of 25 miles between Soissons and Rheims, capturing Craonne Ridge.

April 20.—Turkey severs relations with the United States.

April 21.—A British mission arrives in United States headed by Foreign Secretary Balfour.

April 24.—A French mission arrives in United States, headed by ex-Premier Viviani and Marshal Joffre.

April 28.—Guatemala breaks off relations with Germany.

May 4.—The American navy begins active participation in the war, a destroyer flotilla coöperating with the British fleet in the war zone.

May 9.—The Russian Provisional Government declares that "the frightful spectre of civil war and anarchy hovers over Russia, threatening its freedom."

May 11.—The Russian Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates vote to call a peace conference in a neutral country.

May 15.—General Pétain succeeds General Nivelle as Commander-in-Chief of French armies.

May 15-24.—The Italians make progress in an offensive against the Austrians, from Tolmino to the Adriatic.

May 17.—A. F. Kerensky, a Russian Socialist leader, becomes Minister of War.

May 18.—President Wilson signs a bill creating an army of 500,000 men under a selective conscription system—in addition to Regulars and National Guard.

May 19.—The reorganized provisional government in Russia rejects "all thought of a separate peace," but welcomes a general peace without annexation or indemnity.

June 4-7.—The Austrians in a counter-attack on Carso Plateau recover a third of territory recently lost to Italians.

June 5.—The French Chamber of Deputies, 453 to 55, declares that peace terms must include the restoration of Alsace-Lorraine.

June 7.—With a great mine explosion, the British blast away the top of Wytschaet-Messines Ridge, dominating Ypres from the south, and wipe out a German salient.

June 9.—President Wilson warns the Russian provisional government against German propaganda.

June 12-29.—Greece becomes a belligerent: King Constantine abdicates the throne on June 12, in favor of his son Alexander, in response to the demands of England, France and Russia; Venizelos becomes Premier on June 25, and diplomatic relations with Germany are severed on June 29.

June 13.—Major-General Pershing and his staff arrive in Paris, to prepare for the first American expedition.

June 15.—An American mission to Russia, headed by Elihu Root, is welcomed at Petrograd by the provisional government.

The **first American war loan** is closed, with the $2,000,000,000 offered oversubscribed by 50 per cent.

June 17.—The Russian Duma votes in favor of "an immediate offensive in close coöperation with Russia's allies."

June 18—Haiti severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

June 26.—The first **American troops arrive in France,** having sailed secretly on June 14.

June 28.—Brazil revokes its decree of neutrality—equivalent to a declaration of war on Germany.

July 1-17.—The Russian army, led by Minister of War Kerensky, assumes an offensive (in Galicia) for first time since the revolution; Halicz is captured, and 36,000 German, Austrian, and Turkish prisoners.

July 11.—Premier Ribot declares that France's right to Alsace-Lorraine will not admit of a plebiscite.

July 14.—A German political crisis over peace demands brings the **resignation of Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg** and Foreign Secretary Zimmermann; Dr. Georg Michaelis becomes Chancellor.

July 19.—The **German Reichstag adopts a peace resolution** (proposed by Socialists, Radicals and Catholics) expressing desire of German people for peace without forcible acquisitions of territory, and with mutual understanding and lasting consideration.

Finland proclaims its independence, the beginning of a widespread movement throughout Russia to establish separate governments.

July 19-26.—The recently victorious **Russian army mutinies** and retreats in the face of a German counter-attack; Kerensky becomes Premier, with unlimited powers.

July 22.—Siam declares war on Germany and Austria.

July 25.—A convention assembles at Dublin to settle the Irish question.

July 27.—The Allies decide to withdraw from Greece, except from Salonica.

Premier Lloyd George declares that Great Britain has enrolled more than 5,000,000 soldiers, besides 500,000 in the navy and 1,000,000 from dominions and colonies.

July 30.—The French High Commissioner to the United States declares that France's present fighting strength is 3,000,000 men, who hold two-thirds of the western front.

July 31.—A Franco-British offensive in Flanders, Belgium, results in an advance of two and a half miles, heavy rains interfering.

August 6.—Richard von Kuehlmann becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in Germany.

August 7.—Liberia declares war on Germany.

August 14.—China declares war on Germany and Austria.

August 15.—A **peace appeal by Pope Benedict** (dated August 1) is made public; he suggests disarmament, evacuation of Belgian and French territory, restitution of German colonies, and settlement of political and territorial questions in a conciliatory spirit for the general welfare.

Canadian troops capture Hill 70, dominating Lens (declared impregnable by Germans).

August 20-24.—Dr. Alexander Wekerle becomes Premier of Hungary.

A French attack at Verdun results in the capture of important positions and 4,000 prisoners.

August 24-September 14.—Italian forces capture Monte Santo and Monte San Gabriele, Austrian strongholds near Gorizia.

August 27.—President Wilson replies to the Pope's peace message; he condemns proposals for punitive damages, the dismemberment of empires, and the establishment of economic leagues, but declares that a peace agreement made by present German rulers must be supported by German people.

American exports to neutral countries are placed under Government control.

September 3.—Riga, Russia's second most important seaport, is occupied by Germans, the demoralized Russian army withdrawing.

September 6.—Premier Ribot declares that France will not consent to diplomatic discussion of Alsace-Lorraine.

September 7-10.—Premier Ribot resigns and Paul **Painlevé becomes Premier of France.**

September 8.—Intercepted telegrams from Luxburg, German Chargé in Argentine, to Berlin, recommend that Argentine vessels, if sunk by German submarines, should be destroyed **"without leaving a trace."**

September 15.—A Russian Republic is proclaimed.

September 18.—Premier Painlevé states France's war aims as the disannexation of Alsace-Lorraine, reparation for ruin, and a just peace with guarantees against aggression.

September 19-25.—The Argentine Congress votes to break diplomatic relations with Germany; President Irigoyen does not carry out the recommendation.

September 20-October 12.—A series of British attacks in the Ypres sector are all retarded by muddy ground.

September 21.—German and Austrian replies to the Pope ignore the status of occupied territory, but declare for immediate negotiations among the belligerents; a supplemental reply on September 26 offers to contribute toward compensation to Belgium, but demands economic rights and a guarantee against any "Belgian menace such as threatened Germany in 1914."

October 6.—Peru severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

October 7.—Uruguay severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

October 12.—The German Minister of Marine, Admiral von Capelle, resigns following a mutiny in the Baltic Fleet.

October 17.—The American transport **"Antilles,"** homeward bound, is torpedoed and sunk with the loss of 70 lives.

A naval engagement in the Gulf of Riga results in the sinking of a Russian battleship.

October 20.—Five Zeppelin airships are destroyed in France after a raid over England.

October 23-25.—A French offensive near Soissons results in a maximum gain of nearly four miles with 12,000 prisoners.

October 24-November 10.—An Austro-German army, with overwhelming artillery, breaks through the Italian line and causes **withdrawal** not only from Austrian territory, but from northern Italy to the Piave River line.

October 26.—Brazil declares war on Germany, following the sinking of a fourth merchant vessel.

October 27.—Subscriptions for the **second American war loan** are closed; acceptances totalling $3,808,766,150.

October 30.—Count George F. von **Hertling** succeeds Michaelis as **Chancellor of Germany.**

Vittorio Orlando becomes Premier of Italy, succeeding Boselli.

November 3.—Germany announces the first capture of American soldiers, north of Luneville.

November 5.—American patrol boat "Alcedo" is sunk by a German submarine with a loss of 21 lives.

November 8-14.—A second revolution in Russia, under direction of Bolsheviki (or Maximalist faction of Radical Socialists), results in overthrow of Kerensky government; the new Premier Lenine and Foreign Minister Trotzky declare for an immediate democratic peace, the handing-over of land to peasants, and the convocation of a constitutional assembly.

November 9.—A Supreme War Council is created, composed of the Prime Minister and a military representative from each Government.

November 12.—Premier Lloyd George speaks in Paris on lack of coöperation among the Allies; he recalls the Serbian "tragedy," its repetition in Rumania, and the Italian disaster.

November 13-15.—Painlevé resigns and Georges **Clémenceau becomes Premier of France.**

November 17.—The British in Palestine occupy Jaffa.

November 20.—The British at **Cambrai** move forward without the usual artillery preparation, gaining five miles on a wide front and capturing 8,000 Germans; "tanks" play an important part.

November 28.—The revolutionary government in Russia makes public a secret agreement entered into with Italy on April 26, 1915, by Great Britain, France and Russia; Italy's claims to Austrian territory were recognized in return for joining the Allies.

November 29.—An Inter-Allied Conference is opened at Paris, the Premiers of France and England attending and Col. Edw. M. House representing U. S.

November 30-December 5.—German counter-attacks regain half the ground recently lost to British near Cambrai.

December 1.—German East Africa, last and largest of Germany's overseas possessions, comes under complete control of Allied forces.

December 4-7.—The United States Congress, following recommendations by President Wilson, **declares war on Austria-Hungary.**

December 6.—A large section of Halifax, Nova Scotia, is destroyed by an explosion; 150 persons are killed and 20,000 rendered homeless.

United States destroyer "Jacob Jones" is sunk by a German submarine, with a loss of 66 lives.

December 7.—An armistice goes into effect on the Russo-German front.

December 8.—Ecuador severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

December 10.—Jerusalem is occupied by British forces.

December 20.—Premier Lloyd George states Britain's peace terms: restoration of German-occupied territory, with reparation; the future of German colonies to be based upon wishes of native races.

December 22.—A peace conference assembles at Brest-Litovsk, German-occupied Russia, with delegates from Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey; the Central Powers propose a general peace without forcible annexations and indemnities, the Allies to join with Russia; Russia must recognize the demand of the peoples of Poland, Lithuania, Courland, Esthonia and Livonia for self-government, and German troops will not be withdrawn from those territories.

1918

January 5.—Premier **Lloyd George** restates **war aims of Great Britain**, declaring that destruction of Germany or Austria-Hungary and the separation of Turkey's capital are not war aims; the Alsace-Lorraine wrong of 1871 must be reconsidered, the Dardanelles must be neutralized, and Arabia, Armenia, Mesopotamia, Syria, and Palestine must not be restored to Turkish sovereignty.

January 7.—Earl Reading, Lord Chief Justice of England, is appointed High Commissioner and Special Ambassador to the United States.

January 8.—President **Wilson** addresses Congress on America's **program of world peace**, specifying fourteen "rectifications of wrong and assertions of right."

January 16.—The United States Fuel Administrator orders the closing of manufacturing industries for five days, and of all non-essential businesses for nine Mondays, to save fuel and relieve railroads.

January 20.—In a naval engagement at the Dardanelles, with British vessels, a Turkish battleship is sunk and another disabled.

January 21.—Strikes in Austrian cities, in favor of peace, but aggravated by food shortage, cause the closing of important war industries.

January 24.—Chancellor von Hertling replies to peace terms of Premier Lloyd George and President Wilson—declining to allow interference in Russian affairs, leaving Italian matters to Austria-Hungary to answer, pledging support to Turkey against proposals affecting its territory, declaring that withdrawal from France should be agreed upon between Germany and France, that Belgian details be settled at a peace conference, and that dismemberment of Alsace-Lorraine can never be considered.

The Austro-Hungarian Prime Minister states that Austria demands no territory from Russia, and makes overtures for a direct "exchange of ideas" with the United States.

January 28-February 4.—Strikes occur in Berlin and other **German cities** in favor of peace without indemnities or annexations, the abolition of militarism in war industries, and participation of workmen in peace parleys.

February 5.—The British transport **"Tuscania,"** carrying 2,200 American soldiers under British convoy, is sunk off Ireland, 170 soldiers being lost.

February 6.—The French High Commissioner to United States declares there are 4,725,000 French soldiers under arms, nearly three million being in war zone, holding three-fourths of the western front of 470 miles.

February 9.—The first peace treaty is signed between representatives of Central Powers and the new Republic of Ukraine, in Southern Russia.

Germany claims the capture of American prisoners at Xivray, east of St. Mihiel.

February 11.—President Wilson, addressing Congress, analyzes recent Austro-German peace utterances and restates four principles upon which a just and permanent peace could be founded.

The Russian Government, though refusing to sign a peace treaty, declares war with Central Powers at an end.

February 18-19.—Germany resumes hostilities against Russia; the Russian Government declares its willingness to sign the peace treaty dictated by the Teutons.

February 22.—Norway guarantees that American imports will neither reach Germany nor replace Norwegian products exported to Germany.

February 25.—Chancellor von Hertling expresses fundamental agreement with President Wilson's four principles, and declares that peace can be discussed on such a basis; England's war aims are still "thoroughly imperialistic."

February 27.—Japanese military operations in Siberia are proposed, to save vast quantities of military supplies.

March 3.—A peace treaty is signed at Brest-Litovsk, **between Russia and the four Central Powers**; besides territory already occupied by Germans, new terms compel Russia to "evacuate" Ukrainia, Esthonia and Livonia, Finland, the Aland Islands, and the Transcaucasian districts of Erivan, Kars, and Batum.

March 5.—A preliminary **peace treaty** is signed **between Rumania and the Central Powers**, Rumania giving up province of Dobrudja to the Danube and accepting "frontier rectifications" demanded by Austria-Hungary.

March 7.—A treaty of peace is signed between Germany and Finland.

March 9.—The Government of Russia is transferred from Petrograd to Moscow.

March 10.—The American Secretary of War, Mr. Baker, arrives in France on a tour of inspection.

It is announced that **American troops are in trenches at four points**—on the Lorraine front, northwest of Toul; in the Champagne; in Alsace near Luneville; and in the Chemin-des-Dames region northwest of Rheims.

March 11.—President Wilson expresses sympathy with Russian people in a message to the Congress of Soviets, meeting at Moscow to ratify German peace treaty.

March 20.—The United States seizes Dutch vessels in American ports after giving notice that the shipping agreement reached with Allies, postponed through fear of Germany, should be put into effect.

March 21.—The British Admiralty publishes its record of merchant ships sunk to end of 1917; British ships, 7,079,492 tons; total ships, 11,827,572 tons.

March 21-29.—The first phase of the greatest battle of the war. The Germans launch an attack against fifty miles of British and French line in Picardy, from Arras to La Fere, gaining a maximum of thirty miles.

March 23.—Paris is bombarded by long-range guns from a distance of seventy miles.

March 29.—General Ferdinand Foch, the French strategist, becomes commander-in-chief of the Allied forces in France—British, French, American, Italian, Belgian, and Portuguese.

April 2.—The Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister, Count Czernin, declares that the four points laid down by President Wilson on February 11 are a basis on which to discuss general peace; he doubts whether the President will succeed in uniting his Allies on such a basis.

April 6.—President Wilson condemns Germany's peace treaties forced upon Russia and Rumania, and proclaims that America will meet with "force to the utmost" Germany's challenge.

April 9-16.—The second phase of the great battle. The German blow shifts to the north, from La Bassee to Ypres, the British evacuating portions of Messines and Passchendaele Ridges.

April 10.—The Russian Commissioner of Commerce states that the treaty with Germany has taken away 300,000 square miles of territory, with 56,000,000 inhabitants (32 per cent. of Russia's entire population), besides one-third of her railways, 73 per cent. of iron, and 89 per cent. of coal.

April 11.—The French Government makes public a letter from Emperor Charles, of Austria (dated March 31, 1917) communicated to President Poincaré, pledging support to "France's just claims regarding Alsace-Lorraine" and to reëstablishment of Belgium and Serbia.

April 12.—The Irish Convention, after eight months of deliberation, presents a divided report to the British Government, proposing an Irish Parliament of two houses; it was not found possible to overcome objections of Ulster Unionists.

April 13.—German troops occupy Helsingfors, Finland.

April 14.—The Navy Department announces that the U. S. S. "Cyclops" has been missing since March 4, with 293 persons on board.

April 18.—Premier Lloyd George's Man Power bill becomes a law in Great Britain, raising the age limit for compulsory service to fifty years, and extending conscription to Ireland.

April 21.—Guatemala declares war against Germany.

May 7.—Nicaragua declares war on Germany and her allies.

May 27-June 1.—The third phase of the great battle for Paris. The Germans move southward along the front from Soissons to Rheims, reaching the Marne—a maximum advance of thirty miles.

June 9-11.—The fourth phase of the German offensive. The Germans advance toward Compiegne, between the salients created by the first and third phases.

June 15-23.—The Austrians launch a supreme effort along the whole line of the Piave River, are partly successful at first, but are thrown back in disorder across the river by an Italian counter-offensive.

June 19.—The fifth phase of the great battle in France. The Germans attempt to take the city of Rheims by attacks from three sides; they gain ground but fail in their main object.

July 15.—Haiti declares war on Germany.

July 16.—The sixth phase of the great German offensive. The Germans attack along a fifty-mile front centering at Rheims, gaining ground to the west but being held on the east.

July 18.—The Allied army in France (French and American units), under the lead of the strategist Foch, launches a successful counter-attack against the western side of the salient in the German line from Soissons to Chateau-Thierry; gains are immediate and constant, and by August 3 the whole salient is abolished—an advance of twenty-five miles.

July 19.—Honduras declares war against Germany.

August 4.—The opening of the fifth year of war finds the Allies on the offensive all along the line in France, the initiative having been wrested from the Germans.

August 8-10.—A new Allied drive is directed against the German salient near Amiens; the attacking troops are British, French, and American, under Field-Marshal Haig, and they advance fourteen miles.

August 15.—American troops land at Vladivostok, to coöperate with an Allied army in Siberia.

August 18-20.—A third offensive is directed against the German line by the British in the Lys salient south of Ypres.

August 20.—The Allied army's blow is shifted once again, to the region between the Oise and the Aisne; the superiority of the Allies becomes clear, and a forced evacuation of French territory is begun by the Germans—Albert is reoccupied on August 22, Noyon and Bapaume on the 29th, Peronne on September 1, St. Quentin on October 1, Lens on October 2, Cambrai on October 9, Laon and LaFere on October 13, Lille and Ostend on October 17, Valenciennes on November 2, Sedan on November 7, Tournai, Mezieres, and Tournai on November 8, and Mons and Maubeuge on November 11.

September 3.—The United States recognizes the Czechoslovaks as a co-belligerent with a de facto government.

September 4.—American troops are landed at Archangel, Russia.

September 12.—The American army carries out its first great offensive, wiping out the long-standing and dangerous salient at St. Mihiel and restoring 150 square miles of French territory.

Thirteen million Americans from 18 to 45 register for military service under the amended Selective Draft Act.

September 14.—Austria-Hungary invites belligerents to a confidential and unbinding discussion on the basic principles for the conclusion of peace; President Wilson refuses to entertain the proposal on September 16.

September 15.—The Servian army, supported by French, British, and Greek forces, launches an offensive against the Bulgarians.

September 19-20.—British forces under General Allenby decisively defeat the Turks; 40,000 prisoners are taken by September 25; Damascus is reached on October 1, Aleppo on October 26 (an advance of 275 miles).

September 27.—President Wilson declares for impartial justice at the peace table, and expresses belief in a league of nations as most essential, with no alliances within the league.

September 29.—Bulgaria withdraws from the war, accepting terms dictated by the Allied commander, including evacuation of Servian and Greek territory and the use of Bulgarian roads by Allied troops.

October 2.—Prince Maximilian of Baden becomes German Imperial Chancellor, succeeding Count von Hertling.

October 4.—King Ferdinand of Bulgaria abdicates in favor of Crown Prince Boris.

October 5.—The new German Chancellor requests the President of the United States to take a hand in the restoration of peace, and accepts as a basis for negotiation the President's program as set forth in his speeches of January 8 and September 27.

October 14.—President Wilson informs Germany that no armistice can be arranged without safeguards for the military supremacy of the Allies, and calls special attention to one of his July 4 peace essentials—the destruction of arbitrary power in Germany.

October 21.—The German Foreign Secretary declares that recent changes in form of government place responsibility with the people.

October 23.—It is announced that 2,000,000 American soldiers have sailed for overseas service, nearly half of them since July 1.

October 24.—The Italian army, aided by British and French forces, opens an attack which results in the complete collapse of the Austro-Hungarians.

October 31.—Turkey withdraws from the war, accepting terms dictated by the Allies.

November 3.—Mutiny spreads throughout the German fleet and naval bases.

November 4.—Austria-Hungary withdraws from the war, accepting an armistice dictated by the Allies.

November 5.—The United States informs Germany that the Inter-Allied War Council has agreed to make peace with Germany on terms laid down in President Wilson's addresses, with two exceptions: freedom of the seas must be reserved for the peace conference, and compensation for damage done to civilian population and property must be made by Germany.

November 9.—It is reported that Wilhelm has abdicated as German Emperor; Friedrich Ebert, Socialist, is appointed Imperial Chancellor pending establishment of a constitutional assembly.

November 11.—German delegates sign an armistice agreement presented by Marshal Foch, and hostilities come to an end.

Text of the Armistice with Germany

I.—Military Clauses on Western Front

One—Cessation of operations by land and in the air six hours after the signature of the armistice.

Two—Immediate evacuation of invaded countries: Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine, Luxemburg, so ordered as to be completed within fourteen days from the signature of the armistice. German troops which have not left the above-mentioned territories within the period fixed will become prisoners of war. Occupation by the Allied and United States forces jointly will keep pace with evacuation in these areas. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated in accordance with a note annexed to the stated terms.

Three—Repatriation beginning at once to be completed within fifteen days of all the inhabitants of the countries above enumerated (including hostages, persons under trial or convicted).

Four—Surrender in good condition by the German armies of the following war material: Five thousand guns (2,500 heavy and 2,500 field), 25,000 machine guns, 3,000 minenwerfer, 1,700 airplanes (fighters, bombers—firstly, all of the D 7's and all the night bombing machines). The above to be delivered in situ to the Allied and United States troops in accordance with the detailed conditions laid down in the note (annexure No. 1) drawn up at the moment of the signing of the armistice.

Five—Evacuation by the German armies of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine. The countries on the left bank of the Rhine shall be administered by the local troops of occupation. The occupation of these territories will be carried out by Allied and United States garrisons holding the principal crossings of the Rhine (Mayence, Coblentz, Cologne), together with the bridgeheads at these points of a thirty-kilometer radius on the right bank and by garrisons similarly holding the strategic points of the regions. A neutral zone shall be reserved on the right bank of the Rhine between the stream and a line drawn parallel to the bridgeheads and to the stream and at a distance of ten kilometers from the frontier of Holland up to the frontier of Switzerland. The evacuation by the enemy of the Rhinelands (left and right bank) shall be so ordered as to be completed within a further period of sixteen days, in all, thirty-one days after the signing of the armistice. All the movements of evacuation or occupation are regulated by the note (annexure No. 1) drawn up at the moment of the signing of the armistice.

Six—In all territories evacuated by the enemy there shall be no evacuation of inhabitants; no damage or harm shall be done to the persons or property of the inhabitants. No person shall be prosecuted for offenses of participation in war measures prior to the signing of the armistice. No destruction of any kind shall be committed. Military establishments of all kinds shall be delivered intact, as well as military stores of food, munitions, and equipment, not removed during the time fixed for evacuation. Stores of food of all kinds for the civil population, cattle, etc., shall be left in situ. Industrial establishments shall not be impaired in any way and their personnel shall not be removed.

Seven—Roads and means of communication of every kind, railroads, waterways, main roads, bridges, telegraphs, telephones, shall be in no manner impaired. All civil and military personnel at present employed on them shall remain. Five thousand locomotives and 150,000 wagons in good working order, with all necessary spare parts and fittings, shall be delivered to the associated powers within the period fixed in annexure No. 2, and total of which shall not exceed thirty-one days. There shall likewise be delivered 5,000 motor lorries (camione automobiles) in good order, within the period of thirty-six days. The railways of Alsace-Lorraine shall be handed over within the period of thirty-one days, together with pre-war personnel and material. Further, the material necessary for the working of railways in the countries on the left bank of the Rhine shall be left in situ. All stores of coal and material for the upkeep of permanent ways, signals, and repair shops shall be left in situ. These stores shall be maintained by Germany insofar as concerns the working of the railroads in the countries on the left bank of the Rhine. All barges taken from the Allies shall be restored to them. The note, annexure No 2, regulates the details of these measures.

Eight—The German command shall be responsible for revealing within the period of forty-eight hours after the signing of the armistice all mines or delayed action fuses on territory evacuated by the German troops and shall assist in their discovery and destruction. It also shall reveal all destructive measures that may have been taken (such as poisoning or polluting of springs and wells, etc.). All under penalty of reprisals.

Nine—The right of requisition shall be exercised by the Allied and United States armies in all occupied territories, subject to regulation of accounts with those whom it may concern. The upkeep of the troops

of occupation in the Rhineland (excluding Alsace-Lorraine) shall be charged to the German government.

Ten—The immediate repatriation without reciprocity, according to detailed conditions which shall be fixed, of all Allied and United States prisoners of war, including persons under trial or convicted. The Allied Powers and the United States shall be able to dispose of them as they wish. This condition annuls the previous conventions on the subject of the exchange of prisoners of war, including the one of July, 1918, in course of ratification. However, the repatriation of German prisoners of war interned in Holland and in Switzerland shall continue as before. The repatriation of German prisoners of war shall be regulated at the conclusion of the preliminaries of peace.

Eleven—Sick and wounded who cannot be removed from evacuated territory will be cared for by German personnel, who will be left on the spot with the medical material required.

II.—Disposition Relative to the Eastern Frontiers of Germany

Twelve—All German troops at present in the territories which before belonged to Austria-Hungary, Rumania, Turkey, shall withdraw immediately within the frontiers of Germany as they existed on August 1, 1914. All German troops at present in the territories which before the war belonged to Russia shall likewise withdraw within the frontiers of Germany, defined as above, as soon as the Allies, taking into account the internal situation of these territories, shall decide that the time for this has come.

Thirteen—Evacuation by German troops to begin at once, and all German instructors, prisoners, and civilians as well as military agents now on the territory of Russia (as defined before 1914) to be recalled.

Fourteen—German troops to cease at once all requisitions and seizures and any other undertaking with a view to obtaining supplies intended for Germany in Rumania and Russia (as defined on August 1, 1914).

Fifteen—Renunciation of the treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk and of the supplementary treaties.

Sixteen—The Allies shall have free access to the territories evacuated by the Germans on their eastern frontier, either through Danzig, or by the Vistula, in order to convey supplies to the populations of those territories and for the purpose of maintaining order.

III.—Clause Concerning East Africa

Seventeen—Evacuation by all German forces operating in East Africa within a period to be fixed by the Allies.

IV.—General Clauses

Eighteen—Repatriation, without reciprocity, within a maximum period of one month in accordance with detailed conditions hereafter to be fixed of all interned civilians, including hostages (persons?), under trial or convicted, belonging to the allied or associated powers other than those enumerated in Article Three.

Nineteen—The following financial conditions are required: Reparation for damage done. While such armistice lasts no public securities shall be removed by the enemy which can serve as a pledge to the Allies for the recovery or reparation for war losses. Immediate restitution of the cash deposit in the national bank of Belgium, and in general immediate return of all documents, specie, stocks, shares, paper money, together with plant for the issue thereof, touching public or private interests in the invaded countries. Restitution of the Russian and Rumanian gold yielded to Germany or taken by that power. This gold to be delivered in trust to the Allies until the signature of peace.

V.—Naval Conditions

Twenty—Immediate cessation of all hostilities at sea and definite information to be given as to the location and movements of all German ships. Notification to be given to neutrals that freedom of navigation in all territorial waters is given to the naval and mercantile marines of the allied and associated powers, all questions of neutrality being waived.

Twenty-one—All naval and mercantile marine prisoners of war of the allied and associated powers in German hands to be returned without reciprocity.

Twenty-two—Surrender to the Allies and United States of all submarines including submarine cruisers and all mine-laying submarines) now existing, with their complete armament and equipment, in ports which shall be specified by the Allies and United States. Those which cannot take the sea shall be disarmed of the personnel and material and shall remain under the supervision of the Allies and the United States. The submarines which are ready for the sea shall be prepared to leave the German ports as soon as orders shall be received by wireless for their voyage to the port designated for their delivery, and the remainder at the earliest possible moment. The conditions of this article shall be carried into effect within the period of fourteen days after the signing of the armistice.

Twenty-three—German surface warships which shall be designated by the Allies and the United States shall be immediately disarmed and thereafter interned in neutral

ports or in default of them in allied ports to be designated by the Allies and the United States. They will there remain under the supervision of the Allies and of the United States, only caretakers being left on board. The following warships are designated by the Allies: Six battle cruisers, ten battleships, eight light cruisers (including two mine layers), fifty destroyers of the most modern types. All other surface warships (including river craft) are to be concentrated in German naval bases to be designated by the Allies and the United States and are to be completely disarmed and classed under the supervision of the Allies and the United States. The military armament of all ships of the auxiliary fleet shall be put on shore. All vessels designated to be interned shall be ready to leave the German ports seven days after the signing of the armistice. Directions for the voyage will be given by wireless.

Twenty-four—The Allies and the United States of America shall have the right to sweep up all mine fields and obstructions laid by Germany outside German territorial waters, and the positions of these are to be indicated.

Twenty-five—Freedom of access to and from the Baltic to be given to the naval and mercantile marines of the allied and associated powers. To secure this the Allies and the United States of America shall be empowered to occupy all German forts, fortifications, batteries, and defense works of all kinds in all the entrances from the Cattegat into the Baltic, and to sweep up all mines and obstructions within and without German territorial waters, without any question of neutrality being raised, and the positions of all such mines and obstructions are to be indicated.

Twenty-six—The existing blockade conditions set up by the allied and associated powers are to remain unchanged, and all German merchant ships found at sea are to remain liable to capture. The Allies and the United States shall give consideration to the provisioning of Germany during the armistice to the extent recognized as necessary.

Twenty-seven—All naval aircraft are to be concentrated and immobilized in German bases to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America.

Twenty-eight—In evacuating the Belgian coast and ports Germany shall abandon in situ and in fact all port and river navigation material, all merchant ships, tugs, lighters, all naval aeronautic apparatus, material and supplies, and all arms, apparatus and supplies of every kind.

Twenty-nine—All Black Sea ports are to be evacuated by Germany; all Russian war vessels of all descriptions seized by Germany in the Black Sea are to be handed over to the Allies and the United States of America; all neutral merchant vessels seized are to be released; all war-like and other materials of all kinds seized in those ports are to be returned and German materials as specified in Clause Twenty-eight are to be abandoned.

Thirty—All merchant vessels in German hands belonging to the allied and associated powers are to be restored in ports to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America without reciprocity.

Thirty-one—No destruction of ships or of materials to be permitted before evacuation, surrender, or restoration.

Thirty-two—The German government shall formally notify the neutral governments of the world, and particularly the governments of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland, that all restrictions placed on the trading of their vessels with the allied and associated countries, whether by the German government or by private German interests, and whether in return for specific concessions, such as the export of shipbuilding materials, or not, are immediately canceled.

Thirty-three—No transfers of German merchant shipping of any description to any neutral flag are to take place after signature of the armistice.

VI.—Duration of Armistice

Thirty-four—The duration of the armistice is to be thirty days, with option to extend. During this period if its clauses are not carried into execution the armistice may be denounced by one of the contracting parties, which must give warning forty-eight hours in advance. It is understood that the execution of Articles 3 and 18 shall not warrant the denunciation of the armistice on the ground of insufficient execution within a period fixed, except in the case of bad faith in carrying them into execution. In order to assure the execution of this convention under the best conditions, the principle of a permanent international armistice commission is admitted. This commission will act under the authority of the allied military and naval Commanders in Chief.

VII.—The Limit for Reply

Thirty-five—This armistice to be accepted or refused by Germany within seventy-two hours of notification.

This armistice has been signed the Eleventh of November, Nineteen Eighteen, at 5 o'clock French time.

F. FOCH,
R. E. WEMYSS,
ERZBERGER,
A. OBERNDORFF,
WINTERFELDT,
VON SALOW.

PRONUNCIATION OF WAR NAMES

THE PRONUNCIATION OF WAR NAMES

By C. O. Sylvester Mawson, Litt.D., Ph.D.

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KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

Vowel sounds: ăle, bâre, ärm, ăsk, senāte, ĕm, orgăn, sofā; ēve, ĕvent, ĕnd, novĕl, bakĕr; īce, ĭll; ōld, ŏrb, ŏbey, ŏdd, cŏmbine; ūse, ûrn, ŭnite, ŭp, loclŭst; fo͝od, fo͝ot; ou as in *out*; oi as in *oil*; ü as in *menu*.

Note.—ü, as in French *menu* or German *Müller*, has no equivalent in English. To produce it, hold the lips rigidly in position to say o͝o and attempt to say ē. ŏ or *oe* in German resembles the English *u* in *urn*; e. g., *Göthe* or *Goethe* is pronounced gŭ'tĕ.

Consonants: As in English. *ch* as in *chair*; *g* as in *go*; *kw* for *qu* as in *queen*; *s* as in *so*; *sh* as in *she*; *z* as in *zone*; *zh* as *s* in *azure*.

Special symbols: ʜ (small capital) for *ch* as in German *ich* or Scotch *loch*; ɴ (small capital) indicates nasal tone of preceding vowel, as in French *bon* (bôɴ); ŋ (= ng) for *n* before the sound of *k* or hard *g* as in *bank* (băŋk), *finger* (flŋ'gĕr); ' indicates the elision of a vowel, or a mere suggestion of a vowel sound, as in *Ypres* (ē'pr').

Accents: The *principal* or *primary* accent is indicated by a heavy mark (ˈ), and the *secondary* accent by a lighter mark (ˌ); thus, *Bouvines* (bo͞o'vĕnˈ); *Massachusetts* (măs'ă-chō͞o'sĕts).

Note.—French names have the primary accent on the final full syllable, but this accent should generally be very slight. The other syllables are marked with equal stress. In German names, the principal accent is placed earlier in the word, as in English. In Hungarian and Bohemian names, the accent is on the first syllable. In Polish, as in Italian, the accent is on the penult. In Russian, the accent is capricious but very marked.

Aachen (*or* Aix-la-Chapelle), ä'kʜĕn
Aalst (*or* Alost), älst
Abbeville, ăb'vĭlˈ
Abée, ä'bāˈ
Acheux, ă'shûˈ
Achicourt, ä'shēˈko͞orˈ
Achiet, ä'shyĕˈ
Acosée, ä'kō'sāˈ
Acoz, ä'kōˈ
Acq, äk
Adelsberg, ä'dĕls-bĕrʜ
Adige (river), ä'dē-jā
Adinkerke, ăd'ĭn-kĕr'kĕ
Adria, ä'drē-ä
Aerschot, är'sʜŏt
Aerseele, är'sā'lē
Aetfryske, ät'frĕ-kĕ
Aehre, ä'rē
Agincourt, ă'zhăɴ'kō͞orˈ; *Eng.* ăj'ĭn-kōrt
Agordo, ä-gōr'dō
Ahrdorf, är'dōrf
Ahrweiler, är'vī-lĕr
Aidin, ī-dēnˈ
Aincreville, ĕɴ'kr'-vēlˈ
Aintab, ĭn'täbˈ
Aire, âr
Aisne (river), ān
Aivenne, ā'vĕnˈ
Aix-la-Chapelle (*or* Aachen), ĕks'lä'-shä'pĕlˈ
Ala, ä'lʜ
Albeek, äl'bāk
Albert, ăl'bûrˈ
Albesdorf, äl'bĕz-dōrf
Albona, äl-bō'näˈ
Aleppo, ä-lĕp'ōˈ
Alexandretta (*or* Iskanderun), ăl'ĕ-zĭn-drĕt'ä
Alken, äl'kĕn
Allarmont, ä'lär'môɴˈ
Alle, äl'ĕ
Allennes, ä'lĕnˈ
Allenstein, äl'ĕn-shtīnˈ
Allondrelle, ä'lôɴ'drĕlˈ
Alost (*or* Aalst), ä'lōst
Alsdorf, älz'dōrf
Alsemberg, äl'zĕm-bĕrʜ
Altheim, ält'hō'lĭn
Altkirch, ält'kĭrʜˈ
Altringen, ält'zĭng-ĕn
Amance, ä'măɴsˈ
Amanweiler, ä'măn-vī'lĕr
Ambacourt, ĕɴ'bä'ko͞orˈ
Amblimont, ĕɴ'blē'môɴˈ
Ambresin, ĕɴ'br'-zĕɴˈ
Amel, ä'mĕl
Amiens, ä'myĕɴˈ
Amoltmes, ä'mō'tĕnˈ
Amont, ä'môɴˈ
Amougies, ä'mo͞o'zhē'
Ampezzo, ăm-pĕt'sō
Ancre (river), ăɴ'krˈ
Anderlecht, ăɴ'dĕr-lĕxt
Andenne, ăɴ'dĕnˈ
Angres, ăɴ'grˈ
Anhée, ăɴ'ā'
Aniches, ä'nēshˈ
Anlier, ăɴ'lyĕˈ
Anloy, ăɴ'lwä'
Anneux, ä'nûˈ
Annevois, ăn'vwä'
Anor, ä'nôrˈ
Anould, ä'no͞olˈ
Anoux, ä'nō͞oˈ
Ans, ăɴs
Ansauville, ăɴ'sō'vēlˈ
Anthée, ăɴ'tā'
Antheit, ăn'tĭt
Anthelupt, ăɴ'tē-lüpˈ
Antilly, ăɴ'tē'yēˈ
Antioch, ăn'tĭ-ŏk
Antreppe, ăɴ'trĕpˈ
Anvin, ăɴ'vĕɴˈ
Any, ä'nēˈ
Anzelin, ăɴz'lĭɴˈ
Anzin, ăɴ'zĕɴˈ
Appilly, ä'pē'yēˈ
Apremont, ä'pr'-môɴˈ
Arbe, ärb
Arcey, är'sēˈ
Archennes, är'shĕnˈ
Arches, ärsh
Arco, är'kō
Ardahan, är'dä-hăɴˈ
Ardoye, är'dwä'
Argenteau, är'zhăɴ'tō'
Argonne, är'gônˈ
Arleux, är'lûˈ
Arlon, är'lôɴˈ
Armentières, är'mĕɴ'tyĕrˈ
Arnaville, är'nä'vēlˈ
Arques, ärk
Arracourt, ä'rä'ko͞orˈ
Arras, ä'răsˈ
Arraye, ä'rāˈ
Arry, ä'rē'
Ars, ärz
Arsdorf, ärz'dōrf
Artes, ärt
Artois, är'twä'
Arville, är'vēlˈ
Asch, äsh
Asoq, äsk
Asiago, ä'zyä-gō
Asolo, ä'zō-lō
Assche, ăs'kĕ
Assweller, ăs'vĭ-lĕr
Ath, ät
Athesans, ä'tē-zäɴˈ
Athies, ä'tēˈ
Athus, ä'tüˈ
Attainville, ä'tĕɴ'vēlˈ
Attigny, ä'tē'nyē'
Atweiler, ät'vī-lĕr
Aube (river), ōb
Aubel, ō'bĕlˈ
Aubencheul, ō'bĕɴ'shûlˈ
Aubenton, ō'bĕn'tôɴˈ
Auberive, ōb'rēvˈ
Aubers, ō'bârˈ
Aubigny, ō'bē'nyē'
Aublain, ō'blĭɴˈ
Auchel, ō'shĕlˈ
Auchy, ō'shē'
Audenarde (*or* Oudenarde), ou'dĕ-närˈdē
Audincourt, ō'dĕɴ'ko͞orˈ
Audun, ō'dün'
Auge, ōzh
Augustowo, ou'go͞os-tō'vō
Aulnois, ōl'nwäˈ
Aulnoye, ōl'nwä'
Aumetz, ou'mĕtz
Auronzo, ou-rōnt'sō
Autel-Bas, ō'tĕl'-bäˈ
Autoing, ō'twĕɴ'
Autrey, ō'trē'
Auvillers, ō'vē'lärˈ
Avecapelle, ä'vĕ'kä'pĕlˈ
Avelghem, ä'vĕl-gĕm
Avennes, ä'vĕnˈ
Avesnes, ä'vänˈ
Aviano, ä-vyä'nō
Avion, ä'vyôɴˈ
Avioth, ä'vyōˈ
Avricourt, ä'vrē'ko͞orˈ
Avril, ä'vrēlˈ
Ay, ä'ē
Ayette, ä'yĕt'
Awenne, ä'vĕnˈ
Azerailles, ä'zĕ-rā'y'
Azoudange, ăz'sou-dänj'ē

Baocarat, bä'kä'räˈ
Badia, bä-dē'ä
Baelegem, bä'lē-gĕm
Baelen, bä'lĕn; bä'lĭɴˈ
Bagdad (*or* Bhagdad), bäg-dädˈ; *Eng.* băg'dăd
Bagneux, bän'yûˈ
Bailleux, bä'lûˈ
Bailleul, bä'yûlˈ
Baisieux, bā'zyûˈ
Baku, bä-kōˈ
Bâle (*or* Basel), bäl
Ballersdorf, bäl'ĕrz-dōrf

Bambrugge, bäm′brŏg′ē
Bannonville, bä′nôn′vēl′
Bapaume, bä′pōm′
Barbarano, bär′bä-rē′nō
Bar-le-Duc, bär′-lē-dük′
Baroncourt, bä′rôn′kōr′
Baronville, bä′rôn′vēl′
Baronweiler, bä′rôn-vī′lĕr
Barst, bärst
Barvaux, bär′vō′
Bascoup, bä′kōō′
Basel (*or* Bâle), bä′zĕl
Basra (*or* Busra), bŭs′rä
Bassano, bäs-sä′nō
Bassée, La, lä′ bä′sā′
Bastogne, bäs′tôn′y′
Batilly, bä′tē′yē′
Batum, bä-tōōm′
Baudrecourt, bō′dr′-kōōr′
Bauffe, bōf
Baugnies, bō′nyē′
Baulon, bō′lôn′
Bautersem, bou′tĕr-sĕm
Bavay, bä′vē′
Bazeilles, bä′zā′y′
Beaucourt, bō′kōōr′
Beaumetz, bō′mĕs′
Beaumont, bō′môn′
Beauquesne, bō′kān′
Beauraing, bō′rān′
Beaurevoir, bō′rē-vwä′
Beauvais, bō′vē′
Beauval, bō′väl′
Beauvillers, bō′vē′lār′
Bebing, bā′bĭng
Bechy, bĕx′ē
Beckingen, bĕk′ĭng-ĕn
Becquevoort, bĕk′vōrt′
Beeringen, bā′rĭng-ĕn
Beernem, bār′nĕm
Beerst, bārst
Beine, bān
Beinheim, bīn′hīm
Beirut (*or* Beyrout), bā′rōōt′
Belfort, bĕl′fōr′
Belgrade, bĕl′grād′
Bellefontaine, bĕl′fôn′tĕn′
Belleghem, bĕl′ē-gĕm
Bellem, bĕl′ĕm
Bellevaux, bĕl′vō′
Bellicourt, bĕl′ē′kōōr′
Bellignies, bĕ-lē′nyē′
Belluno, bĕl-lōō′nō
Belosi, bä-lō′sē
Belval, bĕl′väl′
Belverne, bĕl′vĕrn′
Beney, bĕ-nē′
Benningen, bĕn′ĭng-ĕn
Bensdorf, bĕnz′dōrf
Berchem, bĕr′kĕm
Berg, bĕrx
Berlaimont, bĕr′lē′môn′
Bernecourt, bĕrn′kōōr′
Bernissart, bĕr′nē′sär′
Bernweiler, bĕrn′vī-lĕr
Berquette, bĕr′kĕt′
Bertincourt, bĕr′tăn′kōōr′
Bertogne, bĕr′tôn′y′
Bertrichamps, bĕr′trē′shăn′
Bertrix, bĕr′trē′
Berzée, bĕr′zā′
Besançon, bē′zăn′sôn′
Bethonvilliers, bē-tôn′vē′yār′
Béthune, bā′tün′
Bettainvillers, bĕ′tăn′vē′lār′
Benthen, boi′tĕn
Bettemberg, bĕt′ĕm-bĕrx
Beverloo, bĕv′ĕr-lō′
Beverst, bĕv′ĕrst
Beyrout (*or* Beirut), bā′rōōt′
Bhagdad (*or* Bagdad), bäg-dăd′
Bialystok, byä′lĭ-stŏk
Bienville, byăn′vēl′
Biesme, bē′ăm′
Biestre, bē′ĕs′tr′
Bievre, bē′ĕv′r′
Bihain, bē′ăn′
Bilsen, bĭl′sĕn
Billy, bē′yē′
Binche, băn′sh
Bioncourt, byôn′kōōr′
Bionville, byôn′vēl′
Bisten, bĭs′tĕn
Bitburg, bĭt′bŏōrx
Bitschweiler, bĭt′shvī′lĕr
Biwer, bē′vĕ′
Blandain, blăn′dăn′
Blagny, blä′nyē′
Blamont, blä′môn′
Blaregnies, blä′rā′nyē′
Blaton, blä′tôn′
Bleialf, blī′älf
Bleiburg, blī′bŏōrx
Bleid, blīd
Blenod, blē′nō′
Bloemendaele, blōō′mĕn-dā′lē
Blumenthal, blōō′mĕn-tăl
Bockryck, bŏk′rĕk
Boelhe, bōōl′ē
Boesinghe, bōō′zĭng-ē
Boevange, bōō′vàng-ē
Bohain, bō′ăn′
Boisleux, bwä′lŭ′
Boismont, bwä′môn′
Boltweiler, bōlt′vī-lĕr
Bomal, bō′mäl′
Bomy, bō′mē′
Boncourt, bôn′kōōr′
Bonhome, bō′nôm′
Bonlez, bôn′lā′
Bonnes, bôn
Bonneville, bôn′vēl′
Bonnevoye, bôn′vwä′
Bonviller, bôn′vē′yā′
Boom, bōm
Borg, bōrx
Borgo, bōr′gō
Borsbeke, bōrz′bā-kē
Bosphorus (*or* Bosporus), bŏs′pō-rŭs
Bosseval, bŏs′väl′
Botoshani, bō-tō-shän′y′
Botzen, bōt′sĕn
Bouchain, bōō′shăn′
Bouchout, bōō′shōō′
Bonconville, bōō′kôn′vēl′
Boucq, bōōk
Boudour, bōō′dōōr′
Bougnies, bōō′nyē′
Boullion, bōō′yôn′
Boulers, bōō′lār′
Boulogne, bōō′lôn′y′; *Eng.* bōō-lōn′
Boult, bōōl
Bouquemaison, bōōk′mā′zôn′
Bourbourg, bōōr′bōōr′
Bourcy, bōōr′sē′
Bourdonnay, bōōr′dô′nā′
Bourg-Bruche, bōōrx′-brōōx′ē
Bourg-Fidèle, bōōr′-fē′dĕl′
Bourgogne, bōōr′gôn′y′
Bourxies, bōōr′sē′
Boussy, bōō′sē′
Bousval, bōōs′väl′
Bouverie, bōōv′rē′
Bouvignes, bōō′vēn′y′
Bouvigny, bōō′vē′nyē′
Bouvines, bōō′vēn′
Bouvron, bōō′vrôn′
Bouxières, bōō′zyār′
Boves, bōv
Bovigny, bō′vē′nyē′
Bovrinnes, bō′vrĭn′
Bra, brä
Brabant-le-roi, brä′băn′-lē-rwä′
Braffe, bräf
Braila, brä-ē′lä
Braine, brān
Braine-le-Comte, brān′-lē-kônt′
Braives, brāv
Branchon, brăn′shôn′
Brand, brănt
Braquis, brä′kē′
Bras, brä
Bratte, brät
Braunsberg, brounz′bĕrx
Braux, brō
Bray, brĕ
Bray-sur-Seine, brē′-sür′-sān′
Bray-sur-Somme, brē′-sür′-sŏm′
Breganze, brā-gänt′sä
Brenta (river), brĕn′tä
Brest-Litovsk, brĕst′-lyĕ-tôfsk′
Bretton, brĕt′ŏn
Brie, brē
Briey, brē′ē′
Brin, brăn
Brioni brē-ō′nē
Brixen, brĭk′sĕn
Brouay, brōō′ē′
Brouck, brouk
Brouckirk, brou′kĭrk
Brouveliers, brōōv′lyār′
Bruay, brü′ē′
Bruges, brüzh
Bruly-de-Pesche, brü′lē′-dĕ-pāsh′
Brusa (*or* Brussa), brōō′sä
Brussels (*or* Bruxelles), brŭs′ĕlz
Bruxelles (*or* Brussels), brü′sĕl′
Bruyeres, brü′yār′
Bry, brē
Bucquoy, bü′kwä′
Buczacz, bōō′chäch
Buderschied, bōō′dĕr-shĕt
Budin, bōō′dĭn
Bug (river), bōōg
Buhl, bōōl
Buire, bwĕr
Buironfosse, bwē′rôn′fōs′
Bukharest (*or* Bucharest), bōō′kä-rĕst′
Bukowina (Bukovina), bōō′kō-vē′nä
Bullingen, bōōl′ĭng-ĕn
Bully, bü′yē′
Bult, bül
Burano, bōō-rä′nō
Bures, bür
Burnhaupt, bōōrn′houpt
Bursi, bōōrsī
Burtscheid, bōōrt′shīt
Busendorf, bōō′zĕn-dōrf
Bushire, bōō-shēr′
Busigny, bü′zē′nyē′
Busra (*or* Basra), bŭs′rä
Butgenbach, bōōt′gĕn-bäx
Buttia, bōōt′yä
Buzeguey, bü′zā′nyē′
Buzy, bü′zē′
Buxières, bü′zyār′

Caesarea (*or* Kaisarieh), sĕs-ā-rē′ä
Caeskerke, käz-kĕr′kĕ
Calais, kă′lē′; *Eng.* kăl′ā
Callenelle, käl′nĕl′
Camblain, käx′blăn′
Cambrai (*or* Cambray), kăx′brē′
Cambrin, käx′brăn′
Camisano, kä′mē-zä′nō
Canfanaro, kän′fä-nä′rō
Cantain, käx′tăn′
Capelle, La, lä′ kä′pĕl′
Capodistria, kä′pō-dēs′trē-ä
Cappet, käp′ĕt
Caprino, kä-prē′nō
Carency, kä′rāx′sē′
Carignan, kä′rēn′yăn′
Carnières, kär′nyār′
Carole, kä-rō′lä
Carvin, kär′vĭn′
Cassel, käs′ĕl′
Casteau, käs′tō′
Castelfranco, käs-tĕl′frăŋ′kō
Caster, käs′tĕ′
Castre, käs′tr′
Castua, käs′twä
Cateau, Le, lē kä′tō′
Catillon, kä′tē′yôn′
Caudry, kō′drē′
Cavalese, kä′vä-lā′zä
Cavarzere, kä-vär′dzā-rā
Cerfontaine, sĕr′fôn′tăn′
Cernavoda (*or* Tchernavoda), chĕr′nä-vō′dä
Cernay, sĕr′nē′
Cetinje (*or* Cettinje), tsĕt′ĕn-yā
Chalons-sur-Marne, shä′lôn′-sür′-märn′
Chalon-sur-Saône, shä′lôn′-sür′-sōn′
Chambley, shăx′blē′
Chambrey, shăx′brē′

Champagney, shĭɴ′pà′nyĕ′
Champigny, shĭɴ′pē′nye′
Chapelle, La, là′ shà′pĕl′
Charency, shà′rĭɴ′sē′
Charey, shà′rē′
Charleroi (*or* Charleroy), shàr′lĕ-rwä′
Charleville, shàrl′vĕl′
Charmois, shär′mwä′
Chassart, shàs′är′
Chastre, shàs′tr′
Chatalja (*or* Tchatalja), chä-tä′l′jä
Château-Regnault, shä′tō′-rē′nyō′
Châteauroux, shä′tō′rōō′
Château-Salins, shä′tō′-sà′lĭɴ′
Château-Thierry, shä′tō′-tyĕ′rē′
Châtel, shä′tĕl′
Châtelet, shät′lĕ′
Châtillon, shä′tĕ′yōɴ′
Châtillon-sur-Marne, shä′tē′yōɴ′-sür′-märn′
Chaudefontaine, shōd′fōɴ′tĭn′
Chaulnes, shō′n′
Chaumont, shō′mōɴ′
Chauny, shō′nē′
Chauvency, shō′vĭɴ′sē′
Chaux, shō
Chemin des Dames, shĕ′mĭn′ dā dàm:′
Chenevières, shĕn′vyĕr′
Chenicourt, shĕ-nē′kōōr′
Cherain, shĕ′rĭn′
Cherso, kĕr′sō
Chievres, shē′ĕ′vr′
Chimay, shē′mē′
Chiny, shē′nē′
Chioggia, kyōd′jä
Ciney, sē′nē′
Cittadella, chēt′tä-dĕl′lä
Cividale, chē′vē-dä′lā
Clary, klā′rē′
Clavier, klà′vyĕ′
Clemency, klĕm′ĭɴ′sē′
Clerken, klĕr′kĕn
Clermont, klĕr′mōɴ′
Clervaux, klĕr′vō′
Cleurie, klŭ′rē′
Clezentaine, klĕz′ĭɴ′tān′
Codroipo, kō-drō′ē-pō
Coingt, kwĭɴ
Colroy, kōl′rwä′
Combles, kōɴ′bl′
Comines, kō′mēn′
Commercy, kō′mĕr′sē′
Compiègne, kōɴ′pyĕn′y′
Condé, kōɴ′dā′
Conegliano, kō′nāl-yē′nō
Conflans, kōɴ′flĭɴ′
Cons, kōɴs
Conselve, kōn-sĕl′vä
Constanta (*or* Kustendje), kōn-stän′tsà
Corbais, kōr′bĕ′
Corbeek Loo, kōr′bāk lō
Corbion, kōr′byōɴ′
Corceuil, kōr′sû′y′
Corcieux, kōr′syû′
Corcy, kōr′sē′
Corneville, kōr′nē′vĕl′
Cornimont, kōr′nē′mōɴ′
Corravillers, kō′rà′vē′lär′
Cortemarck, kōr′tē-märk
Cortessem, kōr′tĕs-ĕm
Cortina, kōr-tē′nä
Coucy, kōō′sē′
Coucy-le-Château, kōō′sē′-lē-shä′tō′
Coulommiers, kōō′lō′myĕ′
Coulonges, kōō′lōɴzh′
Courcelles-Chaussy, kōōr′sĕl′-shō′sē′
Courrières, kōō′ryĕr′
Courtemont, kōōrt′mōɴ′
Courtrai, kōōr′trĕ′
Court-St.-Étienne, kōōr′-sĕɴ′-tā′tyĕn′
Couvin, kōō′vĭɴ′
Cracow (*or* Krakow), krā′kō
Craiova (*or* Craiova), krà-yō′và
Craonne, krà′ōn′
Crécy (*or* Cressy), krā′sē′; *Eng.* krĕs′ĭ
Crécy-sur-Serre, krā-sē′-sür′-sār′
Crevic, krē′vĭk′
Crimea, krī-mē′ä; krī-mē′ä
Croisilles, krwà′zĕl′
Croismare, krwà′mär′
Croix, krwä
Crombeke, krōm′bā-kĕ
Crupet, krŭ′pĕ′
Cuesmes, kwĕm
Cuinchy, kwĭɴ′shē
Cul-des-Sarts, kül′-dē′-sär′
Custines, kŭs′tēn′
Cysoing, sē′swĭɴ′
Czenstochowa, chĕn′stō-kō′và
Czernowitz, chĕr′nō-vĭts

Dagny, dà′nyĕ′
Dagonville, dà′gōɴ′vĕl′
Daleiden, dä-lī′dĕn
Dalheim, dăl′hĭm
Dalstein, dăl′shtĭn
Damas, dà′mä′
Damascus, dă-mās′kŭs
Damerkirch, dä′mĕr-kĕrĸ
Dammartin, dăɴ′mär′tĭɴ′
Damvillers, dăɴ′vē′yä′
Daniele, dä-nyā′lā
Danjoutin, dăɴ′jōō′tĭɴ′
Danne, dàn′nĕ
Danzig (*or* Dantzic), dän′tsĭk
Dardanelles, där′dà-nĕlz′
Darhamps, där′ĭɴ′
Darmont, där′mōɴ′
Dedeagatch (*or* Dedeagach), dē-dē′ä gäch′
Deerlyck, dār′lĕk
Delatyn (pass), dē-lä′tĭn
Delle, dĕl
Delme, dĕl′mē
Denain, dē-nĭɴ′
Dendermonde (*or* Termonde), dĕn′dĕr-mōn′dē
Dergneau, dĕr′nyō′
Desvres, dā′v″r′
Diarbekr (*or* Diarbekir), dē-är′bĕk″r
Dickebusch, dĭk′ē-bŭs
Diedenhofen (*or* Thionville), dē′dĕn-hō′fĕn
Dieulouard, dyû′lōō′är′
Dieuze, dyûz
Differdingen, dĭf′ĕr-dĭng′ĕn
Dignano, dē-nyä′nō
Dijon, dē′zhōɴ′
Dinant, dē′nĭɴ′
Dippach, dĭp′ăĸ
Dixmude, dĕks′müd′; dē′müd′
Dnieper (river), nē′pĕr
Dniester (river), nēs′tĕr
Dolleren, dōl′ĕr-ĕn
Dombasle, dōɴ′bäl′
Dommartin, dōɴ′mär′tĭɴ′
Dommary, dōɴ′mà′rē′
Dompaire, dōɴ′pär′
Don, dōɴ
Doncourt, dōɴ′kōōr′
Dongelberg, dŏng′ĕl-bĕrĸ
Donjoutin, dōɴ′jōō′tĭɴ′
Dormans, dōr′mĭɴ′
Dornach, dōr′nĭĸ
Douai (*or* Douay), dōō′ē′
Doullens, dōō′lĭɴ′
Drave (river), drä′vē
Drohobycz, drō-hō′bĭch
Drouville, drōō′vĕl′
Dubno, dōōb′nō
Dukla, dōōk′lä
Dunkirk, dŭn-kûrk′
Duraxzo, dōō-rät′sō
Durbuy, dür′boi′
Düren, dü′rĕn

Eberstein, ā′bĕr-shtĭn
Ebersweiler, ā′bĕrs-vī′lĕr
Ebly, ā′blē′
Echternach, ĕk′tĕr-nĭĸ
Ecly, ĕ′klē′
Écoivres, ā′kwä′vr′
Écoussines, ā′kōō′sēn′
Écouviez, ā′kōō′vyā′
Edeghem, ā′dē-gĕm
Edingen, ā′dĭng-ĕn
Eecke, ā′kē
Eecloo, ā-klō′
Eessen, ā′sĕn
Eglingen, ĕg′lĭng-ĕn
El Kuds (*or* Jerusalem), ĕl kōōds
Ellezelles, ĕl′zĕl′
Elsenborg, ĕl′zĕn-bōrĸ
Élouges, ā′lōōzh′
Éloyes, ā′lwä′
Elverdinghe, ĕl′vĕr-dĭng′ē
Embken, ĕmp′kĕn
Enghien, ĭɴ′gĭɴ′
Enos, ā′nōs
Entroeungt, ĭɴ′trō′ûɴ′
Épernay, ā′pĕr′nĕ′
Épinal, ā′pē′nàl′
Epirus, ē-pī′rŭs
Eppe Sauvage, ĕp′ sō′väzh′
Erdorf, ĕr′dōrf
Eregli, ĕr′ĕ-glē′
Erivan, ĕr′ē-vän′
Ermeton, ĕr′mē-tōɴ′
Erneuville, ĕr′nû′vĕl′
Ernonheld, ĕr′nōn-hĕld
Erpent, ĕr′pĭɴ′
Erpion, ĕr′pyōɴ′
Erpoin, ĕr′pwĭɴ′
Erquelinnes, ĕrk′lĕn′
Errouville, ĕr′ōō′vĕl′
Ertvelde, ĕrt′vĕl-dē
Ervilliers, ĕr′vē′yär′
Erzingan, ĕr′zĭn-gän′
Erzerum, ĕrz-rōōm′
Escaudain, ĕs′kō′dĭɴ′
Esch, ĕsh
Eschweiler, ĕsh′vī-lĕr
Esnes, ān
Esneux, ĕs′nû′
Espierres, ĕs′pyār′
Esqueheries, ĕs′kĕ-rē′
Essey, ĕs′ē′
Estaires, ĕs-tār′
Esti, ĕs′tē
Estinnes, ĕs′tĭn′
Estre Blanche, ĕs′tr′-blänsh′
Étain, ā′tĭɴ′
Étalle, ā′tàl′
Étival, ā′tē′vàl′
Ettelbruck, ĕt′ĕl-brŏk
Étueffont, ā′tŭ′fōɴ′
Eulmont, ûl′mōɴ′
Eupen, oi′pĕn
Euphrates (river), û-frā′tēz
Everbecq, ĕv′ĕr′bĕk′
Evergem, ā′vĕr-gĕm
Évette, ā′vĕt′
Eydtkuhnen, īt-kōō′nĕn
Eynatten, ī-nät′ĕn
Eyne, ī′nē
Eynden, īs′dĕn

Falaen, fà′lĭn′
Falisolle, fà′lē′sōl′
Falmagne, fàl′măn′y′
Famars, fà′mär′
Famillaveux, fà′mē′yà′vû′
Farschweiler, färsh′vī-lĕr
Faulx, fō
Fauvillers, fō′vē′lär′
Fays Dillot, fē′bē′yō′
Feignies, fē′nyē′
Feltre, fĕl′trā
Feluy, fē-loi′
Fépin, fā′pĭɴ′
Père, La, là′ fär′
Père-Champenoise, fär′-shĭɴ′pē-nwäz′
Père-en-Tardenois, fär′-ĭɴ′-tärd′nwä′
Perrière, fē′ryär′
Perté-Gaucher, La, là′ fĕr′tä′-gō′shä′
Perté-sous-Jouarre, La, là′ fĕr′tä′-sōō′-zhōō′är′
Pianona, fyä-nō′nä
Pilsdorf, fĕlz′dōrf
Pinnevaux, flĭn′vō′
Pins, fĭns
Piume, fyōō′mā

Fleurbaix, flœr'bĕ'
Fleury, flœ'rē'
Fleville, flœ'vēl'
Flixecourt, flē'ksŋ'kōr'
Flixecourt, flē'ksŋ'kōr'
Flobecq, flō'bĕk'
Florennes, flō'rĕn'
Florenville, flō'rĭn'vēl'
Florée, flō'rā'
Fontaine, fōn'tĕn'
Fontenay, fōnt'nĕ'
Fontenoy, fōnt'nwä'
Fontoy, fōn'twä'
Fosseuse, fō-tsä'zō
Fouriéres, fō'ryĕr'
Fosse, fōs
Fouchy, fōō'shē'
Foucoucourt, fōō'kōn'yē'
Foug, fōō
Fougerolles, fōōzh'rōl'
Fourmies, fōōr'mē'
Fouville, fō'vēl'
Fraire, frār
Fraise, frāz
Fraize, frāz
Framiéres, frä'myār'
Framont, frä'mōn'
Frécourt, frā'kōōr'
Freisdorf, frīz'dōrf
Fresne, frĕn
Fresnes-en-Woëvre, frĕn'-ĭn'-vō'ĕv'r'
Fresnoy, frē'nwä'
Frotin, frē-tĭn'
Freudenburg, froi'dĕn-bōōrk
Freux, frû
Prévent, frā'vĭn'
Prévillers, frā'vē'lār'
Fribourg, frē'bōōrk
Fricourt, frē'kōōr'
Friesach, frē'zĭk
Frisang, frē'zĭn'
Froidchapelle, frwä'shä'pĕl'
Fromelles, frō'mĕl'
Frouard, frōō'lĭr'
Fumay, fü'mĕ'
Furnaux, für'nō'
Furnes, fürn

Gaesbeek, gĭz'bāk
Gail (river), gāl
Galatz, gä'lăts
Galicia, gā-lĭsh'ĭ-ā
Gallaix, gä'lĕ'
Gallipoli, găl-lē'pō-lē
Gammerages, gäm'rĭzh'
Gand (*or* Ghent), gäN
Gargnano, gär-nyä'nō
Gavis, gä'lĭs
Gavrelle, gä'vrĕl'
Gaza (*or* Ghazzeh), gä'zä
Geet Betz, gāt bĕts
Gelinden, gĕ'lĭn-dĕn
Gelucourt, gä'lōō-kōōrt
Gembloux, zhäN'blōō'
Gemona, jā-mō'nä
Gémonville, zhä'mōN'vēl'
Gemund, gä'mōōnt
Genappe, zhē-näp'
Gérardmer, zhä'rär'mā'
Gerbepal, zhĕrb'pāl'
Gerbeviller, zhĕrb'vē'yā'
Gérouville, zhä'rōō'vēl'
Gesponsart, zbē'pōN'sär'
Ghazzah (*or* Gaza), gŭz'ē
Ghent (*or* Gand), gĕnt
Ghistelles, gē'stĕl'
Ghyvelde, gē-vĕl'dē
Gibecq, zbē'bĕk'
Gildweiler, gĭlt'vĭ-lĕr
Girecourt, zbēr'kōōr'
Giromagny, zbē'rō'mä'nyē'
Gironville, zbē'rōN'vēl'
Givenchy, zbē'vĭN'shē'
Givet, zbē'vē'
Givry, zbē'vrē'
Gladbeek, glăd'bāk
Gleiwitz, glī'vĭts
Glimes, glĕm
Gloss, glōs
Gmünd, g'münt
Gnesen, g'nā'zĕn
Godarville, gō'där'vēl'
Gognoy, gō'nyē'
Golboy, gōl'bē'
Gondrecourt, gōn'dr'-kōōr'
Gondreville, gōn'dr'-vēl'
Gorcy, gōr'sē'
Gorizia (*or* Görz), gō-rĭd'zĕ-ä
Gorgue, La, lä' gōrg'
Görz (*or* Gorizia), gürts
Gosselies, gōs'lē'
Gouvy, gōō'vē'
Gouy, gwē
Gradisca, grä-dēs'kä
Grado, grä'dō
Graide, grād
Graincourt, grĭN'kōōr'
Grammont, grä'mōN'
Grandfontaine, grĭN'fōN'tĕn'
Grand Pré, grĭN' prā'
Grandvoir, grĭN'vwä'
Granges, grĭNzh
Graty, grä'tē'
Gravelines, grāv'lēn'
Gravelotte, grāv'lŏt'
Grembergen, grĕm'bĕr-gĕn
Grenay, grē'nĕ'
Greux, grû
Grevenmacher, grā'vĕn-mĭx'ĕr
Grimmée, grĭN'mĕ'
Gruchten, grōōr'tĕn
Grupont, grü'pōN'
Gueblange, güb'läng-ē
Guebwiller, güb'vĭ-lĕr
Guentrangen, gün'träng-ĕn
Guewenheim, gü'vĕn-hĭm
Guiscard, gēz'kär'
Guise, güēz'
Gulpen, gōōl'pĕn
Gumbinnen, gōōm-bĭn'ĕn
Gundolsheim, gōōn'dōlz-hĭm
Gussainville, gü'sĂN'vēl'

Habay-la-Vieille, ä'bä'-lä'-vē'ä'y'
Hablainville, ä'blĂN'vēl'
Habonville, ä'bōN'vēl'
Hachy, ä'shē'
Hadol, ä'dō'
Hadonville, ä'dōN'vēl'
Hacht, häkt
Haesdonck, hās'dōnk
Hal, häl
Hallaer, hål-lär'
Hallainville, ä'lĂN'vēl'
Halling, häl'ĭng
Halma, häl'mä
Halsdorf, hälz'dōrf
Hamah, hä'mä
Hamme, hăm'ē
Hamoir, ä'mwä'
Hamonville, ăm'ōN'vēl'
Han, hän
Hannapes, ä'näp'
Hanret, ĭN'rā'
Haraucourt, ä'rō'kōōr'
Harcigny, är'sē'nyē'
Hargicourt, är'zhē'kōōr'
Hargnies, är'nyē'
Harlebeke, här'lē-bā'kē
Harmignies, är'mē'nyē'
Harnes, ĭrn
Harre, ĭr
Harville, är'vēl'
Hary, ä'rē'
Hasnon, äs'nōN'
Haspres, äs'pr'
Hastière, äs'tyār'
Hatrize, ä'trēz'
Haubourdine, ō'bōōr'dēn'
Haudemont, ōd'mōN'
Haussy, ō'sē'
Hautchin, ō'shĂN'
Haut Fays, ō' fē'
Hautmont, ō'mōN'
Havangen, hä'fäng-ĕn
Havay, ä'vē'
Havre (*Fr.* Le Havre), hä'vĕr; *Fr.* lē ăv'r'
Hayange (*or* Hayingen), ä'yĭNzh'
Hayingen (*or* Hayange), hī'ĭng-ĕn
Hazebrouck, äz'brōōk'
Heer, hār
Heiderschied, hī'dĕr-shēt
Heimbach, hīm'bäk
Heimsbrunn, hīmz'brōōn
Heinerschied, hī'nĕr-shēt
Hélène, ä'lĕn'
Helgoland (*or* Heligoland), hĕl'gō-lănt
Hellebeeg, hĕl'ĕ-bāk
Hellemmes, ĕl'ĕm'
Hem, ĭN
Hénin, ä'nĂN'
Hennemont, ĕn'mōN'
Henripont, ĭN'rē'pōN'
Herbesthal, hĕr'bĕs-tāl
Herbeumont, ĕr'bû'mōN'
Herbeviller, ĕrb'vē'lā'
Herchies, ĕr'shē'
Herent, hā'rĕnt
Herenthals, hā'rĕn-tāls
Herenthout, hā'rĕnt-out
Hergarlen, hĕr'gär-lĕn
Hergenrath, hĕr'gĕn-rät
Hergnies, ĕr'nyē'
Héricourt, ā'rē'kōōr'
Héristal (*or* Herstal), ā'rē'stäl'
Hermies, ĕr'mē'
Herrines, ĕ'rēn'
Herseux, ĕr'sû'
Hersin, ĕr'sĂN'
Herstal (*or* Héristal), hĕr'stäl
Herzegovina, hĕr'tsĕ-gō-vē'nä
Herzheim, hĕrts'hĭm
Hesdin, ĕs'dĂN'
Hestrud, ĕs'trü'
Heuchin, ü'shĂN'
Heudicourt, ü'dē'kōōr'
Hensweiler, hoiz'vĭ-lĕr
Heusy, ü'sē'
Hèverlé, ā'vĕr'lā'
Heyst, hīst
Hinckange, hĕn'käng-ē
Hinges, ĭNzh
Hirson, ĕr'sōN'
Hives, ĕv
Hody, ō'dē'
Hoten, hō'tĕn
Hoffeld, hō'fĕlt
Hogne, ōn'y'
Hollebeke, hōl'ĕ-bā'kĕ
Hollenthal, hōl'ĕn-tāl
Hollerich, hōl'ĕr-ĭk
Holluin, ō'lwĂN'
Holsbeek, hōlz'bāk
Hombeek, hōm'bāk
Homécourt, ō'mā'kōōr'
Hompre, ōN'pr'
Hon, ōN
Hondschoote, hōnd'shō-tē
Hoogiede, hō'glā-dē
Horodenka, hō'rō-dĕn'kä
Horpmael, hōrp'mäl
Houdain, ōō'dĂN'
Houdremont, oo'dr'-mōN'
Houplines, ōōp'lēn'
Houx, ōō
Houyet, ōō'yē'
Huiron, wē'rōN'
Huldenberg, hōōl'dĕn-bĕrk
Huppaye, ü'pā'
Huy, hoi

Ichtegheim, Ĭx'tĕ-gĕm
Iddergem, Id'ĕr-gĕm
Idria, ē'drē-ä
Igny, ē'nyē'
Illangen, ēl'ĭng-ĕn
Illy, ē'yē'
Incourt, ĭN'kōōr'
Inden, In'dĕn
Ingelmunster, Ĭŋ'gĭl-mün'stĕr
Ire, ēr
Isseghem, Ĭz'ē-gĕm
Iskanderun (*or* Alexandretta), Is-kĂN'-dĕr-rōōn

Ismailia, ēs′mā-ēl′yā
Itegem, ĭt′ē-gĕm
Itterbeek, ĭt′ĕr-bāk
Ittre, ē′tr
Ivangorod, ē-vĭn′gō-rŏt
Issel, ē′zĕl
Izier, ē′zyā′

Jabbeke, yäb′ĭ-kĕ
Jallet, zhä′lĕ′
Jamagne, zhä′măn′y′
Jamboli (*or* Yamboli), yäm′bō-lē
Jametz, zhä′mĕs′
Jamoignes, zhä′mwăn′y′
Jarny, zhär′nē′
Jaroslaw (*or* Jarosalau), yä-rō′slăf
Jarville, zhär′vēl′
Jassy (*or* Yassy), yăs′ē
Jauhay, zhō-lĭ′nē′
Jeandelize, zhăn′dē-lēz′
Jeantes, zhăNt
Jedda (*or* Jidda), jĕd′ä
Jehay, zhē-ē′
Jemappe, zhē-map′
Jenlain, zhăn′lăn′
Jerusalem (*or* El Kuds), jē-rōō′sä-lĕm
Jeumont, zhū′mōn′
Jidda (*or* Jedda), jĭd′ä
Jodoigne, zhō′dwăn′y′
Josuf, zhō′ŭf′
Joncherey, zhôn′zhē-rē′
Jonville, zhôn′vēl′
Jouarre, zhōō′ăr′
Jungfinster, yōōng′fĭn-stĕr
Junfville, zhū′nē′vēl′
Jupreile, zhü′prēl′
Jurbise, zhür′bēz′
Juseret, zhü′sē-rā′
Juvigny, zhü′vē′nyē′
Juville, zhü′vēl′

Kain, kĭN
Kaisarieh (*or* Kaisariyeh *or* Caesarea), kī′zā-rē′yĕ
Kaisersberg, kī′zĕrs-bĕrĸ
Kaiser, kī′lyĕsh
Kall, kĭl
Karakiesar, kä-rä′hĭs-ăr′
Kattscherberg, kät′ē-chĕr-bĕrĸ′
Kattenhofen, kät′ĕn-hō′fĕn
Kedange, kā′dăng-ē
Keltsy (*or* Kielce), kyĕl′tsĭ
Kelz, kĕlts
Kemmel, kĕm′ĕl
Kemplich, kĕmp′lĭĸ
Kerbela, kĕr′bē-lä
Kerling, kĕr′lĭng
Kessel, kĕs′ĕl
Keyem, kī′ĕm
Kholm, kôlm
Khotin, kō′tyĕn
Kief (*or* Kiev), kē′yĕf
Kielce (*or* Keltsy), kyĕl′tsĕ
Kishinef (*or* Kishinev), kē-shē-nyĕf′
Klagenfurt, klā′gĕn-fōōrt
Klausen, klou′zĕn
Kleinhau, klīn′hou
Koekelberg, kōō′kĕl-bĕrĸ
Kohlscheid, kōl′shīt
Kolomea, kō′lō-mā′ä
Kommern, kōm′ĕrn
Königsberg, kō′nĭĸs-bĕrĸ
Kovel, kō′vĕl-y′
Kragojevatz (*or* Kraguyevatz), krä-gōō′yĕ-väts
Krainberg, krīn′bĕrĸ
Krakow (*or* Cracow), krā′kō
Krath, krät
Krautscheid, krout′shīt
Kremenchug (*or* Krementchug), krĕm′-ĕn-chōōk′
Kremnitz, krĕm′nĭts
Kreuzau, kroi′tsou
Kronenberg, krō′nĕn-bĕrĸ
Kuds, El (*or* Jerusalem), ĕl kōōdz
Kur (*or* Kura, river), kōōr ; kōō′rä
Kurisches Haff, kōō′rĭsh-ĕs häf
Kustendje (*or* Constanța), küs-tĕn′jĕ
Kut-el-Amara, kōōt′ĕl-ä-mä′rä

La Bassée, lä′ bä′sā′
La Capelle, lä′ kä′pĕl′
La Chapelle, lä′ shä′pĕl′
Ladeuze, lä′dōz′
La Père, lä′ făr′
La Père–Champenoise, lä′ făr′-shĭN′-pē-nwäz′
La Ferté–Gaucher, lä′ fĕr′tā′-gō′shā′
La Ferté–sous–Jouarre, lä′ fĕr′tā′-sōō′-zhōō′ĭr′
Lagarde, lä′gärd′
Lagny, lä′ny′
La Gorgue, lä′ gôrg′
Laibach, lī′bäĸ
Laires, lăr
Laison, lā′zôN′
Laix, lĕ
La Laterna, lä′ lä′tĕrn′
Lamarche, lä′märsh′
Lamorteau, lä′môr′tō′
Landrecies, lăN′drā′sē′
Landres, lăN′dr′
Laneffe, lä′nĕf′
Langemarck, lăŋ′gĕ-märk′
Langres, lăN′gr′
Languion, lăN′gē′ôN′
Lannoy, lä′nwä′
Laon, lăN
La Panne, lä′ pän′
La Pinte, lä′ păNt′
La Roche, lä′ rôsh′
Latakia, lä′tä-kē′ä
Latisana, lä′tē-sä′nä
La Trouche, lä′ trōōsh′
Laumesfeld, lou′mĕz-fĕlt
Lautenbach Zell, lou′tĕn-bäĸ tsĕl′
Laveline, läv′lēn′
Laventie, lä′văn′tē′
Lavoir, lä′vwä′
La Voivre, lä′ vwä′vr′
Lebbeke, lĕ-bā′kĕ
Le Cateau, lĕ kä′tō′
Ledeberg, lā′dē-bĕrĸ
Ledeghem, lā′dē-gĕm
Leeuw, lā′ōō
Legnago, lā-nyä′gō
Le Havre, lĕ äv′r′
Leidenborn, lī′dĕn-bôrn
Le Mans, lĕ măN′
Lembecq, lăN′bĕk′
Lemberg (*or* Lwów), lĕmbĕrg
Lendmara, lănd-mä′rä
Lens, lăNs
Levico, lā′vē-kō
Le Quesnoy, lĕ kā′nwä′
Lianoourt, lē′ăN′kōōr′
Liart, lē′ăr′
Libau, lē′bou
Lichtenborn, lĭĸ′tĕn-bôrn
Lichtervelde, lĭk′tĕr-vĕl′dĕ
Liederkerke, lē′dĕr-kĕr′kĕ
Liége, lē′ĕzh′
Lienz, lē-ĕnts′
Lierneux, lē′ĕr′nû′
Lierre, lē′ăr′
Liessies, lē′ĕs′ē′
Ligne, lēn′y′
Ligneville, lēn′y′-vēl′
Ligny, lē′nyē′
Ligny–en–Barrois, lē′nyē′-ăN′-bä′rwä′
Lille (*or* Lisle), lēl
Lilliers, lē′lăr′
Limburg, lĭm′bûrĸ ; *Eng.* lĭm′bûrg
Limey, lē′mē′
Linden, lĭn′dĕn
Linne, lĭn
Lironville, lē′rôN′vēl′
Livenza (river), lē-vĕnt′sä
Liverdun, lē′vĕr′dŭN′
Lixières, lē′zyăr′
Locon, lô′kôN′
Lodz (*or* Lódź), lôdz ; lôj
Lommer, lôm′ĕr
Lommersweiler, lôm′ĕrs-vī′lĕr
Lompret, lôN′prē′
Lomza (*or* Lomzha), lôm′zhä
Longarone, lôŋ′gä-rō′nĕ
Longchamps, lôN′shăN′
Longeville, lôNzh′vēl′

Longlier, lôN′lyā′
Longvilly, lôN′vē′yē′
Longwy, lôN′vē′
Lonny, lô′nē′
Loo, lō
Loos, lō-ōs′
Lopham, lō′pĕm
Lorentzweiler, lō′rĕnts-vī′lĕr
Lorraine (*or* Lothringen), lô-rān′
Lorry, lô′rē′
Loscheim, lōz′hĭm
Lothringen (*or* Lorraine), lōt′rĭng-ĕn
Lotzen, lût′sĕn
Louette St. Denis, lōō′ĕt′ sĂN′ dē-nē′
Louette St. Pierre, lōō′ĕt′ sĂN′ pyăr′
Lougres, lōō′gr′
Louvaigne, lōō′vĕn′y′
Louvain, lōō′vĭN′
Louvignies, lōō′vē′nyē′
Lubey, lü′bē′
Lublin (*or* Lyublin), lyōō′blyēn
Lucheux, lü′shū′
Lucy, lü′sē′
Lünebach, lü′nē-bäĸ
Lunéville, lü′nā′vēl′
Lure, lür
Lussin, lōōs-sēn′
Luttange, lōōt′ăng-ē
Lutterbach, lōōt′ĕr-bäĸ
Luttre, lü′tr′
Lutzk (*or* Lutsk), lōōtsk
Luxembourg, lük′sĂN′bōōr′
Luxemburg, lük′sĕm-bûrg ; *Ger.* lōōks′-ĕm-bōōrĸ
Lwów (*or* Lemberg), lvōōf
Lys (river), lēs

Machecourt, mäsh′kōōr′
Mâcon, mā′kôN′
Macquenoise, mäk′nwäz′
Magneux, mä′nyû′
Magnières, mä′nyăr′
Magny, mä′nyē′
Mainville, măN′vēl′
Mainz (*or* Mayence), mĭnts
Mährisch–Ostrau, mā′rĭsh-ôs′trou
Maisiers, mā′zyā′
Maisons–Alfort, mā′zôN′-zăl′fôr′
Maiseray, māz′rē′
Maizy, mā′zē′
Malamocco, mä′lä-môk′kō
Malatia, mä′lä-tē′ä
Maldegem, mäl′dē-gĕm′
Malines (*or* Mechlin), mä′lēn′
Malo–les–Bains, mä′lō′-lā′-bĂN′
Malroy, mäl′rwä′
Malvaux, mäl′vō′
Maiseville, māz′vēl′
Mamers, mä′măr′
Manage, mä′năzh′
Mance, măns
Manicamp, mä′nē′kĂN′
Manneren, măn′ē-rĕn
Manonvillers, mä′nôN′vē′lăr′
Mans, Le, lĕ măN′
Mantova (*or* Mantua), măn′tō-vä
Mantua (*or* Mantova), măn′tû-ä
Marainviller, mä′rĂN′vē′yā′
Marbache, mär′bäsh′
Marche, märsh
Marchiennes, mär′shyĕn′
Marchin, mär′shĂN′
Marcinelle, mär′sē′nĕl′
Marck, märk
Marcoing, mär′kwĂN′
Maroq, märk
Marenne, mä′rĕn′
Maretz, mä′rĕs′
Margival, mär′zhē′väl′
Mariakerke, mä-rē′ä-kĕr′kĕ
Maricourt, mä′rē′kōōr′
Marienburg, mä-rē′ĕn-bōōĸ
Marieux, mä′ryû′
Markirch, mär′kĭrĸ
Mariemont, märl′môN′
Maries, märl
Mariole, mär′lwä′
Marly, mär′lē′
Marolles, mä′rwä′y′

Maron, mà′rôn′
Marquain, mär′kĭn′
Marsal, mär′zäl
Marseille (*or* Marseilles), mär′sā′y′
Marseilles, mär-sālz′
Mars-la-Tour, märs′-lä′-tōōr′
Martincourt, mär′tĭn′kōōr′
Marville, mär′vē′
Massemen, mäs′ĕ-mĕn
Massiges, mä′sēzh′
Maubert-Fontaine, mō′bâr′-fôn′tĕn′
Maubeuge, mō′bûzh′
Maulde, mōld
Maxenchamp, mä′zĭn′shĭn′
Mayence (*or* Mainz), mä′yĭns′
Mazée, mä′zā′
Meaux, mō
Mecca (*or* Mekka), mĕk′ä
Mechlin (*or* Malines), mĕk′lĭn
Medernach, mā′dĕr-nāk
Medina, mĕ-dī′nä
Meersenen, mār′zĕn
Mekka (*or* Mecca), mĕk′ä
Melle, mĕl
Mellier, mĕl′yā′
Melreux, mĕl′rû′
Melun, mĕ-lûn′
Membruggen, mĕm′brŏōg-ĕn
Menin, mĕ-nĭn′
Menil, mĕ-pĒl′
Menil-la-Tour, mĕ-nĒl′-lä′-tōōr′
Merbeoque, mĕr′bĕk′
Merbes, mĕrb
Merchtem, mĕrĸ′tĕm
Mercken, mĕr′kĕn
Mercy-le-Bas, mĕr′sē′-lĕ-bä′
Mercy-le-Haut, mĕr′sē′-lĕ-ō′
Merlemont, mĕrl′mōn′
Mersch, mĕrsh
Merval, mĕr′vàl′
Merville, mĕr′vē′
Messancy, mĕ-sĭn′sē′
Messein, mĕ-sĭn′
Messines, mĕ-sēn′
Mestre, mĕs′trĕ
Mitaires, mĭ′târ′
Metnitz, mĕt′nĭts
Metrich, mĕt′rĭĸ
Mettecoven, mĕt′ē-kō′fĕn
Metz, mĕts; *Fr.* mĕs
Metzeral, mĕt′sĕ-räl
Metzerwiese, mĕt′sĕr-vē′zĕ
Meulebeke, mû′lĕ-bā′kĕ
Meuse (river), mûz; *Eng.* mûz
Mézières, mā′zyâr′
Mirwart, mēr′vărt
Mitrovicza (*or* Mitrovitz), mē′trō-vĕt′sä
Moerbeke, mōōr′bā-kĕ
Moerkerke, mōōr′kĕr-kĕ
Moere, mōō′rĕ
Moggio, mōd′jō
Mohammera, mō′hä-mā′rä
Mohiville, mō′ē′vĒl′
Mohon, mō′ôn′
Moiroy, mwär′nē′
Moldava (river), môl-dä′vä
Molhain, mō′lĭn′
Monastir, mōn′äs-tĒr′
Monceau, mōn′kō′
Moncel, mōn′sĒl′
Monchy, mōn′shē′
Mondelange, mōn′dĕ-länġ′ĕ
Monfalcone, mōn′fäl-kō′nä
Mons, mônz
Mons-en-Pévèle, môn′-zĭn′-pā′vĒl′
Mont, mōn
Montagnana, mōn′tä-nyä′nä
Montbéliard, mōn′bā′lyär′
Montdidier, mōn′dē′dyā′
Montfaucon, mōn′fō′kôn′
Montherme, mōn′tĕrm′
Montheureux, mōn′tül′rû′
Montigny, mōn′tē′nyē′
Montjoie, mōn′jwä′
Montmédy, mōn′mā′dē′
Montmirail, mōn′mē′rä′y′
Montoise, mōn′twäz′
Montreau Vieux, mōn′trō′vyû′
Mont-St.-Amand, mōn′-sĭn′-tä′mĭn′
Mont-St.-Aubert, mōn′-sĭn′-tō′bâr′
Mont-St.-Éloy, mōn′-sĭn′-tā′lwä′
Mont-St.-Jean, mōn′-sĭn′-zhĭn′
Mont-St.-Martin, mōn′-sĭn′-mär′tĭn′
Mont-St.-Pierre mōn′-sĭn′-pyâr′
Mont-St.-Rémy, mōn′-sĭn′-rā′mē′
Montsec, mōn′sĕk′
Moorslede, mōrs′lā-dĕ
Moreuil, mō′rû′y′
Morey, mō′rē′
Moriville, mō′rē′vĒl′
Morville, mōr′vĒl′
Mosel, mō′zĕl′
Mouaville, mōō′ä′vĒl′
Mouchin, mōō′shĭn′
Moulbaix, mōōl′bē′
Moulins, mōō′lĭn′
Mousceron, mōōs′krôn′
Moustier, mōōs′tyā′
Mouvaux, mōō′vō′
Mouzay, mōō′zē′
Moyen, mwä′yĭn′
Moyenmoutier, mwä′yĭn′mōō′tyā′
Moyenneville, mwä′yĕn′vĒl′
Mozet, mō′zĒ′
Muggia, mōō′jē
Mülhausen, mül′hou′zĕn
Münster, mün′stĕr
Murville, mür′vĒl′
Mush, mōōsh
Musson, mü′zôn′
Muysen, moi′zĕn
Muzeray, mü′zĕ-rē′

Nadrin, nä′drĭn′
Nakhitchevan, nä′kĕ-chĕ-vĭn′
Nampteuil, nĭn′tû′y′
Namur, nä′mür′
Nancy, nĭn′sē′; *Eng.* năn′sĭ
Nandrin, nĭn′drĭn′
Narew (*or* Narev, river), nä′rĕf
Nassogne, nä′sôn′y′
Nazareth, (Belgium) nä′zä′rĕt′
Nennig, nĕn′ĭx
Neale, nāl
Neubois, nû′bwä′
Neuenburg, noi′ĕn-bōōrĸ
Neufchâteau, nû′shä′tō′
Neufchatel, nû′shä′tĕl′
Neufchef, nû′shĕf′
Neuilly-sur-Marne, nû′yē′-sür′-märn′
Neumarkt, noi′mărkt
Neutitschein, noi′tĭt′shĭn
Neuve Chapelle, nûv′ shä′pĕl′
Neuve Église, nûv′ ā′glēz′
Neuve Maison, nûv′ mā′zôn′
Nouves Maisons, nûv mā′zôn′
Neuville, nû′vē′
Neuweiler, noi′vī-lĕr
Niekirchen, nē′kĕr′ĕn
Niel, nĒl
Nieuport, nē′ōō-pōrt
Nikolaief (*or* Nikolayev), nyē′kō-lī′yĕf
Nimes (*or* Nismes), nēm
Ninove, nē′nōv′
Nivelles, nē′vĒl′
Nives, nēv
Noerdange, nōōr′dänġ-ĕ
Noirefontaine, nwär′fôn′tĕn′
Noirval, nwär′vàl′
Noisy-le-Sec, nwä′zē′-lĕ-sĕk′
Noreuil, nō′rû′y′
Norroy-le-Sec, nō′rwä′-lĕ-sĕk′
Norvenich, nōr′fĕ-nĭĸ
Nouzon, nōō′zôn′
Noville, nō′vĒl′
Novogeorgievsk, nō′vō-gĕ-ôr′gĕ-yĕfsk
Noyelle, nwä′yĕl′
Noyen, nwä′yĭn′

Obaix, ō′bā′
Oberbruck, ō′bĕr-brōōĸ
Obersgegen, ō′bĕrz-gā′gĕn
Ober-Weiler, ō′bĕr-vī′lĕr
Ober-Weiss, ō′bĕr-vīs′
Occoches, ō′kōsh′
Ochampe, ō′shän′
Octringen, ōk′trĭng′ĕn
Oderen, ō′dē-rĕn
Oderno, ō-dĕrt′ō
Odeleem, ōō′dē-lām
Offey, ō′fē′
Ogeviller, ōzh′vē′yē′
Ogy, ō′zhē′
Ohain, ō′lĭn′
Ohey, ō′lē′
Oignies, wà′nyē′
Oise (river), wäz
Oisy, wä′zē′
Oilignies, ō′lē′nyē′
Olloy, ō′lwä′
Olmütz, ōl′mütz
Olsheim, ōlts′hĭm
Omicourt, ō′mē′kōōr′
Onnaing, ō′nĭn′
Oombergen, ōm′bĕr-gĕn
Oostacker, ōst′äk′ĕr
Oostcamp, ōst′kămp′
Oostkerke, ōst′kĕr-kĕ
Opont, ō′pôn′
Oppy, ō′pē′
Orbey, ōr′bā′
Orchies, ōr′shē′
Orchimont, ōr′shē′mōn′
Oroq, ōrk
Origny, ō′rē′nyē′
Ornel, ōr′nĒl′
Ornay, ōr′nē′
Orsera, ōr-sā′rä
Orval, ōr′vàl′
Osero, ō-sā′rō
Ostiglia, ōs-tē′lyä
Ostrog, ōs-trōx′
Ostrow, ōs′trōf
Ottendorf, ōt′ĕn-dōrf
Ottignies, ō′tē′nyē′
Ottingen, ōt′ĭng-ĕn
Ouchen, ōō′shĭn′
Oudenarde (*or* Audenarde), ou′dĭ-nār′dĕ
Oudler, ōōd′lē′
Ouffet, ōō′fĭ′
Ouire, wēr
Ourcq (river), ōōrk
Ourthe (river), ōōrt

Padova (*or* Padua), pä′dō-vä
Padua (*or* Padova), păd′ū-ä
Pagny, pä′nyē′
Pagnies, pä′nyē′
Pago, pä′gō
Paliseul, pä′lē′sûl′
Palmanova, päl′mä-nō′vä
Pange, pänġ′ĕ
Panne, Le, lä pän′
Pannes, pän
Parenzo, pä-rĕnt′sō
Paris, păr′ĭs; *Fr.* pä′rē′
Parroy, pä′rwä′
Pas-de-Calais, pä′-dĕ-kä′lĒ′
Passchendaele, päs′kĕn-dĭ′lĕ
Patignies, pä′tē′nyē′
Pattingen, pät′ĭng-ĕn
Pâturages, pä′tül′räzh′
Paxonne, pä′zôn′
Pecq, pĕk
Pelingen, pä′lĭng-ĕn
Pellestrina, pĕl′lĕs-trē′nä
Peltre, pĕl′trĕ
Pepinster, pĕp′ĭn-stĕr
Perck, pĕrk
Peremyal (*or* Przemyśl), pĕ-rē′mIshl-y′; pshĕ′mIshl-y′
Perl, pĕrl
Pernes, pĕrn
Péronne, pā′rôn′
Perthes, pĕrt
Peschiera, pā-skyā′rä
Petersbach, pā′tĕrs-bäĸ
Petingen, pē′tĭng-ĕn
Petit-Croix, pē-tē′-krwä′
Petit-Magny, pē-tē′-mä′nyē′
Petitmont, pē-tē′mōn′
Petrokov (*or* Piotrków), pyē′trō-kōf′
Peuthy, pû′tē′
Peuvillers, pû′vē′lâr′
Pfaffenheim, pfä′fĕn-hĭm
Pfetterhausen, pfĕt′ĕr-bou′zĕn

Philippeville, fē'lēp'vēl'
Phlin, flĭn
Piacenza, pyä-chĕnt'sä
Piave (river), pyä'vä
Picardy, pĭk'ar-dĭ
Pierrefonds, pyĕr'fôn'
Pierrepont, pyär'pôn'
Pietro, pyĕ'trō
Pieve di Cadore, pyĕ'vā dē kä-dō'rā
Pilken, pĭl'kĕn
Pillon, pē'yôn'
Pinte, La, lä' pănt
Piotrków (*or* Petrokov), pyōtr'kōōf
Piove, pyō'vā
Piraeus, pī-rē'ŭs
Pirano, pē-rä'nō
Pitthem, pĭt'ĕm
Plainfaign, plān'fān'
Plancher-les-Mines, plĭʀ'shĕ'-lā'-mēn'
Plasschendaele, pläs'kĕn-dā'lē
Plombières, plôn'byĕr'
Podgórze, pōd-gōō'zhē
Poelcapelle, pōōl'kä'pĕl'
Poitiers, pwä'tyā'
Poix, pwä
Poix-St.-Hubert, pwä'-sĭʀ'-tü'bâr'
Pola, pō'lä
Polleur, pō'lûr'
Pont-à-Celles, pôn'-tä'-sĕl'
Pont-à-Marq, pôn'-tä'-märk'
Pont-à-Mousson, pôn'-tä'-mōō'zôn'
Pontebba, pōn-tĕb'bä
Ponte di Piave, pōn'tä dē pyä'vä
Pontoy, pōn'toi
Pont-Pierre, pôn'-pyĕr'
Pont-Ste.-Maxence, pôn'-sĭnt'-mä'zĭns'
Pont-sur-Sambre, pôn'-sür'-sänn'br'
Poperinghe, pō'pĕ-rĭng'
Pordenone, pōr'dā-nō'nā
Portogruaro, pōr'tō-grōō-ä'rō
Portole, pōr'tō-lā
Portore, pōr'tō-rā
Port Said, pōrt sä-ēd'
Potteaux, pō'tō'
Pozières, pō'zyĕr'
Predazzo, prā-dät'sō
Pripet, prē'pĕt
Prisrend, prē'zrĕnt
Profondeville, prō'fônd'vēl'
Promontore (cape), prō'mōn-tō'rā
Pronsfeld, prônz'fĕlt
Proskurof (*or* Proskurov), prō'skōō-rôf'
Proven, prō'vĕn
Provenchères, prō'vĭn'shâr'
Provin, prō'vĭn'
Prum, prōōm
Pruth (river), prōōt
Przasnysz, pshäs'nĭsh
Przemyśl (*or* Peremysl), pshĕ'mĭshl-y'
Pulnoy, pül'nwä'
Pultusk, pōōl'tōōsk
Pussemange, plüs'mänzh'
Püttlingen, püt'lĭng-ĕn
Puxieux, pü'zyû'

Quareux, kä'rû'
Quarnero, kwär-nä'rō
Quartes, kärt
Quatre-Bras, kä'tr'-brä'
Quesnoy, Le, lĕ kä'nwä'
Quevaucamps, kĕ-vō'kän'
Quievrain, kē'ē-vrĭn
Quisvy, kē'ē-vē'

Raddon, rä'dôn'
Radmannsdorf, rät'mouns-dôrf
Radom, rä'dôm
Radzivilov, rät'zē'vē-lôf'
Raeren, rä'rĕn
Rambervillers, rän'bĕr'vē'lâr'
Rambruch, rän'brōōĸ
Ramecourt, rän'kōōr'
Ramet, rä'mā'
Ramillies, rä'mē'yē'
Ramonchamps, rä'môn'shän'
Ramont, rä'môn'
Rance, rĭns
Ranconnière, rän'kô'nyâr'
Raon, rän
Raon-l'Étape, rän'-lā'tàp'
Rappoltsweiler, räp'ôlts-vī'lĕr
Rastenburg, räs'tĕn-bōōrĸ'
Raucourt, rō'kōōr'
Raulecourt, rōl'kōōr'
Raulseur, rōl'sûr'
Rava (*or* Rawa), rä'vä
Raves, räv
Raville, rä'vēl'
Ravnagora, räv'nä-gō'rä
Rawaruska, rä'vä-rōōs'kä
Rechingen, rĕĸ'ĭng-ĕn
Recogne, rē'kôn'y'
Redu, rē'dü'
Regnieville, rē'nyē'vēl'
Réhainviller, rā'ĭn'vē'yā'
Réhan, rā'ĭn'
Reichlange, rīĸ'läng-ē
Reims (*or* Rheims), rēms; *Fr.* rĭns
Reisdorf, rīz'dôrf
Releghem, rēl'ē-gĕm
Remagne, rē-män'y'
Rémancourt, rā'mô'kōōr'
Remich, rā'mĭĸ
Remiremont, rē-mēr'môn'
Rémy, rā'mē'
Renaix, rē-nē'
Renland, rän'länt
Renlies, rän'lē'
Renwez, rän'vā'
Repaix, rē-pē'
Resteigne, rĕs'tĕn'y'
Rethel, rē-tĕl'
Reuland, roi'länt
Revin, rē-vän'
Rezonville, rē-zôn'vēl'
Rheims (*or* Reims), rēms; *Fr.* rĭns
Ribecourt, rē'kōōr'
Ribemont, rē'môn'
Richterich, rĭĸ'tē-rĭĸ
Riempst, rēmpst
Rienne, rē'ĕn'
Riga, rē'gä
Rigny, rē'nyē'
Rimbach, rēm'bäĸ
Rimogne, rē'môn'y'
Rinnthal, rĭn'tāl
Rivière, rē'vyär'
Robecq, rō'bĕk'
Robechies, rōb'shē'
Robelmont, rō'bĕl'môn'
Roche, La, lä' rōsh'
Rochefort, rōsh'fôr'
Rochehaut, rōsh'ō'
Rochesson, rōsh'sôn'
Rocquincourt, rō'klĭn'kōōr'
Rocroi, rō'krwä'
Rodemachern, rō'dē-mäĸ'ĕrn
Roeux, rō'û'
Roisel, rwä'zĕl'
Roly, rō'lē'
Rombas, rōm'bäs
Roncq, rōnk
Roobors, rō'bōrs
Rorbach, rōr'bäĸ
Rosée, rō'zā'
Rosières, rō'zyĕr'
Rosières-en-Santerre, rō'zyĕr'-sänn'-târ'
Rossart, rō'sär'
Rotgen, rōt'gĕn
Rothau, rō'tou
Roubaix, rōō'bē
Rouen, rwän
Rouffach, rōō'fäĸ
Rougemont, rōōzh'môn'
Roulers, rōō'lā'
Roupy, rōō'pē'
Rousbrugge, rous'brōōg-ē
Rouves, rōōv
Rouvres, rōō'vr'
Rouvrois, rōōv'rwä'
Rouvroy, rōōv'rwä'
Roux, rōō
Roverbella, rō'vĕr-bĕl'lä
Roveredo, rō'vā-rā'dō
Rovigno, rō-vē'nyō
Rovigo, rō-vē'gō
Royaumeix, rwä'yō'mĕ'
Roye, rwä
Rozoy-sur-Serre, rō'zwä'-sür'-sâr'
Rozzo, rōd'zō
Ruddervoorde, rüd'ĕr-vōr'dē
Rudlin, rüd'lĭn'
Rulles, rül
Rumbeke, rüm'bā-kē
Rumes, rüm
Rumigny, rü'mē'nyē'
Rupt, rüp
Russen, rüs'ĕn
Rzeszow, zhĕ'shōōf

Saar (river), zär
Saarbrücken, zär'brük'ĕn
Saarburg, zär'bōōrĸ
Sablon, sä'blôn'
Sachsenburg, säk'sĕn-bōōrĸ
Sacile, sä-chē'lā
Safed, sä'fĕd'
Saffelaere, säf'ē-lā'rē
Saida, sī'ē-dä
Sains, sănn
Sains-Richmont, sănn'-rēsh'môn'
Saint-Amand, sănn'tä'männ'
Saint-Benoît, sănn'-bē-nwä'
Saint-Blaize, sănn'-blāz'
Saint-Bresson, sănn'-brĕ-sôn'
Saint-Cyr, sănn'-sēr'
Saint-Denis, sănn'-dē-nē'
Saint-Dié, sănn'-dyā'
Saint-Étienne, sănn'-tā'tyĕn'
Saintes, sănt
Saint-Genest, sănn'-zhē-nĕ'
Saint-Georges, sănn'-zhôrzh'
Saint-Gérard, sănn'-zhā'rär'
Saint-Germain, sănn'-zhĕr'mănn'
Saint-Ghislain, sănn'-gē'lănn'
Saint-Gilles, sănn'-zhēl'
Saint-Hilaire, sănn'-tē'lâr'
Saint-Hubert, sănn'-tü'bâr'
Saint-Jean, sănn'-zhänn'
Saint-Josse-ten-Noode, sănn'-zhōs'-tänn'-nōd'
Saint-Julien, sănn'-zhü'lyĕnn'
Saint-Laurent, sănn'-lô'ränn'
Saint-Léger, sănn'-lā'zhā'
Saint-Léonard, sănn'-lā'ô'närr'
Saint-Marcel, sănn'-mär'sĕl'
Sainte-Marguerite, sănt'-märg'ē rēt'
Sainte-Marie, sănt'-mä'rē'
Saint-Martin, sănn'-mär'tănn'
Saint-Maurice, sănn'-mō'rēs'
Saint-Médard, sănn'-mā-dâr'
Saint-Michel, sănn'-mē'shĕl'
Saint-Mihiel, sănn'-mē'yĕl'
Saint-Nabord, sănn'-nä'bôr'
Saint-Nicholas, sănn'-nē'kô'lä'
Saint-Omer, sănn'-tô'mâr'
Saint-Ouen, sănn'-twĕnn'
Saint-Paul, sănn'-pôl'
Saint-Pierre, sănn'-pyär'
Saint-Pol, sănn'-pôl'
Saint-Privat, sănn'-prē'vä'
Saint-Quentin, sănn'-känn'tănn'
Saint-Remy, sănn'-rē-mē'
Saint-Simon, sănn'-sē'mônn'
Saint-Sulpice, sănn'-sül'pēs'
Saint-Trond, sănn'-trônn'
Saint-Venant, sănn'-vē-nänn'
Sainville, sănn'-vēl'
Saleux, sä'lû'
Saloniki (*or* Salonica), sä'lô-nē'kē
Salvore, säl-vō'rā
Sambre (river), sänn'br'
Samrée, sänn'rā'
San (river), sän
Sancourt, sänn'kōōr'
San Giorgio, sän jôr'jō
Santeuil, sänn'tû'y'
San Pietro, sän pyĕ'trō
Sapogne, sä'pôn'y'
Sappois-le-Bas, sä'pwä'-lē-bä'
Sappois-le-Haut, sä'pwä'-lē-ō'
San Vito, sän vē'tō

Sarajevo (*or* Sarayevo), sä′rà-yā-vō
Sarlin, sä-rē′lĭ
Sart, sär
Sarthe (river), särt
Saulnes, sōn
Saulnot, sō′nō′
Sauvigny, sō′vē′nyē′
Sauxures, sō′lür′
Save (river), säv
Saventhem, sä′vĕn-tĕm
Schaerbeek, sxär′bāk
Scheven, sxä′vĕn
Schiffilngen, shĭf′fĭng-ĕn
Schio, skē′ō
Schirmeck, shēr′mĕk
Schleiden, shlī′dĕn
Schmidtheim, shmĭt′hĭm
Schoenecken, sxō′nĕk-ĕn
Schönberg, shō′nē-bĕrx
Schooten, sxō′tĕn
Schopp, shōp
Schrierbach, shrēr′lĭx
Scutari (*or* Skutari), skōō′tĭ-rē
Seclin, sē-klĭn′
Sedan, sē-dĭn′
Segelsem, sā′gĭl-zĕm
Selchenprey, sēsh′prē′
Seine (river), sān
Selbach, zĭl′bāx
Seloignes, sē-lwàn′y′
Semelle, sē-nēl′
Semlin, sĭm′lĭn′
Sémon, sā′nōn′
Senthelm, zānt′hĭm
Seny, sē-nē′
Seraing, sē-rĭn′
Seres, sā′rĕs
Sereth (river), sē-rĕt′
Serres, sär
Servance, sĕr′vĭns′
Servigny, sĕr′vē′nyē′
Seuil, sū′y′
Sevran, sē-vrĭn′
Sézanne, zā′zän′
Sibret, sē′brā′
Sichen, sĭx′zn
Siedlce (*or* Syedlets), shĕl′tsē
Sierck, sērk
Signy-l'Abbaye, sē′nyē′-là′bā′
Signy-le-Petit, sē′nyē′-lē-pē-tē′
Silenrieux, sē′lĭn′ryū′
Sillegny, sē′lē′nyē′
Silly, sē′yē′
Simmerath, zĭm′ē-rĭt
Sin, sĭn
Sinay, sē′nē′
Sinob (*or* Sinope), sē-nōb′
Sinope (*or* Sinob), sĭ-nō′pē
Sinsin, sĭn′sĭn′
Sinspelt, zĕns′pĕlt
Sirault, sē′rō′
Sivas, sē′vās′
Sivry, sē′vrē′
Skoplje (*or* Úsküp), skōp′lyĕ
Skutari (*or* Scutari), skōō′tĭ-rē
Sleydinge, slī′dĭŋ-gē
Slype, slēp
Smeerkerke, smās′kĕr-kē
Sochaux, sō′shō′
Sofia (*or* Sophia), sō′fē-ä; sō-fī′ĭ
Sohier, sō′ē′ĭ′
Soignies, swà′nyē′
Soire, swär
Soissons, swà′sōn′
Sokolof (*or* Sokolow), sō′kō-lōf′
Solbach, zōl′bāx
Solesmes, sō′lĕm′
Sologne, sō′lōn′y′
Somain, sō′mĭn′
Sombrin, sōn′brĭn′
Somergem, sō′mĕr-gĕm
Somme (river, department), sōm
Sommerviller, sō′mĕr′vē′yĕ′
Somzée, sōn′zā′
Soppe, sōp′ē
Sorcy, sōr′sē′
Sotenich, sō′tē-nĭx
Sottegem, sōt′ē-gĕm
Soucin, sōō′zĭn′
Souilly, swē′yē′
Soulosse, sōō′lōs′
Soultzbach, soults′bāx
Soultzmatt, soults′mät
Soumagne, sōō′män′y′
Soumay, sōō′mē′
Soupir, sōō′pēr′
Sourbrodt, sour′brōt
Sourvoy, sōōr′vwä′
Spilimbergo, spē′lēm-bĕr′gō
Spincourt, spĭn′kōōr′
Spittal, shpĭt′ăl
Spy, spē
Staple, stä′pl′
Stanfem, shtou′fĕn
Steenbrugge, stĭn′brōōg′ē
Steenvoorde, stĭn′vōr-dē
Steige, shtī′gē
Sterrebeek, stĕr′ē-bāk
Stettin, shtē-tēn′
Stoesswihr, shtōs′vēr
Stoumont, stōō′mōn′
Straimont, strē′mōn′
Stralsund, shträl′zōont
Stree, strē
Strigno, strē′nyō
Struma (river), strōō′mä
Stryj, strē′y′
Sugny, sü′nyē′
Suippes, swēp
Suwalki, sōō-vāl′kē
Swevezheem, swĭ′vē-gĕm
Swevezeele, swĭ′vē-zā′lē
Swinemünde, svē′nē-mün′dē
Syedlets (*or* Siedlce), syĕd′lyĕts

Tabriz, tä-brēz′
Tahure, tä′ür′
Taintrux, tĕn′trü′
Taremto, tär-chĕn′tō
Tarcienne, tär′syĕn′
Tarnopol, tär-nō′pōl-y′
Tarnow, tär′nōōf
Tavaux, tä′vō′
Tavigny, tä′vē′nyē′
Tchatalja (*or* Chatalja), chĭ-tĭl′jĭ
Tchernavoda (*or* Cernavoda), chĕr′nä-vō′dĭ
Tellancourt, tē-lĭn′kōōr′
Tellin, tē-lĭn′
Templeuve, tän′plū′v′
Tentre, tĭn′tr′
Termes, tĕrm
Termonde (*or* Dendermonde), tĕr′mōnd′
Ternuay, tĕr′nü′ē′
Thann, tän
Thaon, tän
Thélus, tā′lü′
Thérouanne, tĭ′rōō′ăn′
Thésy, tĭ′zē′
Thiant, tē′ĭn′
Thiaucourt, tyō′kōōr′
Thiefosse, tyĕ-fōs′
Thielt, tēlt
Thiene, tyē′nä
Thil, tēl
Thillot, tē′yō′
Thionville (*or* Diedenhofen), tyōn′vēl′
Thirimont, tē′rē′mōn′
Thourout, tōō′rōō′
Thuin, tü′ĭn′
Tillet, tē′yĭ′
Tincourt, tĭn′kōōr′
Tirlemont, tēr′l′mōn′
Tolmezzo, tōl-mēt′sō
Tomasof (*or* Tomaszow), tō-mä′sōōf
Tongres, tōn′gr′
Tourcoing, tōōr′kwĭn′
Tournay (*or* Tournai), tōōr′nĕ′
Tranbach, trou′bāx
Trenchiennes, trĭn′shyĕn′
Trebizond, trēb′ĭ-zŏnd′
Tregnano, trā-nyä′nō
Trélon, trā′lōn′
Trianocourt, trē′ō′kōōr′
Treviso, trā-vē′zō
Trieste (*or* Triest), trē-ĕst′
Trieux, trē′ū′
Troncbe, La, là′ trōōsh′
Turkheim, tōōrk′hĭm

Überstrasse, ü′bĕr-shträs′ē
Udine, ōō′dē-nā
Ugny, ü′nyē′
Umago, ōō-mä′gō
Únie (*or* Ú'nich), ü-nē′ē
Urbach, ōōr′bāx
Urbeis, ōōr′bīs
Uria, ōōr′ĭä′
Urmatt, ōōr′mät
Urmiah (*or* Urmia, Urumiah), ōōr′mē′ĭ
Urrel, ōōr′ĕl
Urulle, ü′rülf′
Úsküp (*or* Úsküb, Skoplje), üs-küp′

Vacquerie, vä′kē-rē′
Vagney, vä′nyē′
Valenciennes, vä′lĭn′syĕn′
Valhey, väl′ē′
Valjevo (*or* Valyevo), vāl′yā-vō
Valmarangen, väl′mē-räng′ĕn
Valmy, väl′mē′
Vance, vāns
Vancouleurs, vĭn′kōō′lūr′
Vandières, vän′dyār′
Vannes, vän
Vardar (river), vär′där′
Varennes-en-Argonne, vä′rĕn′-zĭn′-är′gŏn′
Vaucourt, vō′kōōr′
Vandemont, vōd′mōn′
Vaux, vō
Vécoux, vā′kōō′
Veglia, vā′lyä
Velving, fl′fĭng
Velaines, vā-lān′
Velannes, vē-lăn′
Vellerois, vēl′rwä′
Vellescot, vēl′skō′
Vendée, vän′dā′
Vendegies, vän′dē′zhē′
Vendin, vän′dĭn′
Venezia (*or* Venice), vĕ-nēt′syĕ
Venice (*or* Venezia), vĕn′ĭs
Vennecy, vĕn′sē′
Ventron, vän′trōn′
Verdenal, vĕrd′nāl′
Verdun, vĕr′dün′
Vermand, vĕr′mĭn′
Verneuil, vĕr′nū′y′
Verona, vē-rō′nä; *It.* vā-rō′nä
Versailles, vĕr′sā′y′; *Eng.* vĕr-sālz′
Verviers, vĕr′vyā′
Vervins, vĕr′vĭn′
Vezy, vĕz′ē′
Viadan, vē′ä-dän
Vicenza, vē-chĕnt′sä
Vignevilles, vē′nyül′
Villafranca, vēl′lĭ-frăŋ′kĭ
Villemontoire, vēl′mōn′twär′
Villers-Bretonneux, vē′lĭr′-brĕ-tō′nū′
Villers-Cotterets, vē′lĭr′-kō′tĕ-rē′
Villers-le-Ville, vē′lĭr′-lā′-vēl′
Villerupt, vēl′rüp′
Villiers, vē′yā′
Villverde, vēl′vōrd′
Vimy, vē′mē′
Vincey, vĭn′sē′
Vireux, vē′rū′
Vistula (*or* Weichsel), vĭs′tū-lä
Vitrimont, vē′trē′mōn′
Vitry-en-Artois, vē′trē′-ĭn′-är′twä′
Vitry-le-François, vē′trē′-lē-frĭn′swä′
Vittorio, vēt-tō′rē-ō
Votvre, La, là′ vwä′vr′
Volga, vōl′gä; *Russ.* vōl′gă
Volhynia, vōl-ĭn′ĭ-ä
Volta, vōl′tä
Voorde, vōr′dē
Vosges, vōzh
Vottem, vōt′ĕm
Vouziers, vōō′zyār′
Vy-les-Lure, vē′-lē′-lür′

Wahlenscheid, vä′lĕs-shīt′
Walcourt, vä′lkōōr′

Walheim, vä'hĭm
Wallers, vä'lăr'
Wallendorf, văl'ĕn-dôrf
Wancennes, văn'sĕn'
Wanlin, văn'lĭn'
Wardin, vär'dĭn'
Warta (*or* Warthe), vär'tĕ
Warzée, vär'zā'
Wazigny, vä'zē'nyē'
Wazmes, văm
Wasserbillig, vä's'ĕr-bĭl'ĭɣ
Wassigny, vä'zē'nyē'
Waterloo, wô'tĕr-lōō'; *Du.* wä'tĕr-lō'
Watigny vä'tē'nyē'
Watweiler, vät'vī-lĕr
Wavre, väv'r'
Wavrin, vä'vrĭn'
Waxweiler, văks'vī-lĕr
Weerde, wär'dĕ
Weerl, wărl
Wehingen, vā'hĭng-ĕn
Weichsel (*or* Vistula), vĭk'sĕl
Weismes, vīz'mĕz
Welten, vĭ'tĕn
Weiterswciler, vĭ'tĕrz-vī'lĕr
Wembach, vĕm'bäx
Werlaing, vĕr'lĭn'
Werviocq, vĕr'vēk'
Wesselberg, vā'zĕl-bĕrx
Wetteren, wĕt'ĕr-ĕn
Wibrin, vē'brĭn'
Wignehies, vēn'yē-ē'
Wiltz, vĭlts
Wintzenheim, vĭnt'sĕn-hĭm
Wiserncs, vē'zărn'
Woel, wōōl
Wolvre, vô'ĕv'r'
Wolppy, voi'pē
Wolmeringen, vōl'mĕr-ĭng'ĕn
Woluwe-Saint-Lambert, wōl'ü-wĕ-sĕnt-lĭm'bĕrt
Wörth, vûrt
Würselen, vür'zē-lĕn

Xammes, zăm
Xaronval, zä'rôn'väl'
Xertigny, zĕr'tē'nyē'
Xironcourt, zē'rôn'kōōr'
Xivry, zē'vrē'
Xures, zür

Yassy (*or* Jassy), yäs'ē
Ypres, ē'pr'
Yser (river), ē'sär'
Yvoir, ē'vwär'
Zabern, tsä'bĕrn
Zamosk (*or* Zamość), zä'môshch
Zeebrugge, tsä'brōōg'ē
Zellenburg, tsĕl'ĕn-bōōrx
Zirknitz, tsĕrk'nĭts
Zittau, tsĭt'ou
Zlocznów, zlô'chôôf
Zweibrücken, tsvī'brük'ĕn

INDEX

INDEX

Abatis 100
Abbreviations of honors and orders 152
Access to the Sea..... 35
Ace 67
Adjutant-General 104
Admiral 107
Africa.....149, 226
  proposed agreement...270, 271
Agriculture....228, 229, 274, 280
Aircraft bombing.....48, 68
Airplanes .....67 to 77
Air raids.....70, 75
Alcohol 47, 278, 281
Alexandra, Queen 302
Alien Draft Bill.....238
Alien Enemies 3, 239, 293, 322, 323
Allies 2, 139
  armies 147
  cost of war..... 197
Alsace-Lorraine 32, 166
  Map .....Plate VII
Ambassadors and Ministers.. 317
America (see United States)
American Federation of Labor 319
American Library Association 299
American republics in war.. 4
American inventions..... 87
Ancona 9
Anglo-German Hague Conference 119
Anti-aircraft guns..... 73
Antwerp 156
Anzac 151
Appam case..... 259
Arabic 9
Armaments, Limitation of.. 31
Armenians 168, 169
Armies 50, 103, 104
  Ancient 296
  Austria-Hungary 150
  Canadian 147
  French 147
  German 149
  Great Britain 104, 147
  Russian 128, 224
  United States
    5, 6, 42, 56, 103, 108, 231, 241
  Map .....Plate XVII
Armistice 38-41, 352-354
Armor on ships..... 85
Artillery
  American 53, 242
  weapons 101, 102
Asia Minor
  Map .....Plate X
  territory 192
Asquith 310, 317
Atrocities .....325 to 338
Australia 145, 148, 248
Austria-Hungary
    4, 12 32-34, 37, 170
  army 150
  Emperor 301
  prisoners 119
  war loan..... 205
Austro-Italian frontier.....
  Map .....Plate VIII
Aviation 67-77, 243
Baden-Powell, General..... 308
Baker, Secretary..... 291
Balance of Power..... 2
Balkans 162, 170, 171
  Map .....Plate IX
Ballast tanks 63
Baltic Sea territory.142, 159, 164
Bank Laws
  German 202, 203
Barrage 46
Batoum 176, 212
Battalion 104
Battalion of Death..... 150
Battery 105
Battlefields
  cultivation 102
Battles 128-130, 296
  naval 131-135
Battleships (see Warships)
Beatty, Sir David..... 305
Beer 278
Belgium
    32, 153-158, 304, 325 to 338
  king 300, 304
  Map showing Franco-German frontier...Plate IV
Belligerent acts.....5, 136
Berlin 140, 212
Berlin-Bagdad Railroad
    192, 267, 268, 271
Bernhardi, General 309
Bessarabia 167
Bethmann-Hollweg, Dr. T... 310
Big Bertha..... 88
Birth rate 247
Blighty 101
Blimps 74
Boches 225
Bolo Pasha 317
Bolsheviki 163, 177
Bombs
  airplane 70, 74
Bosnia 34
Bounties 132, 276
Bourassa, Henri..... 318
Bourgeois 178
Boycott 319
Boy-Ed, Capt. 12, 307
Brazil 246
Bread 227, 272
Breech-loading 88
Breslau 133
Brest-Litovsk 35, 167, 183
Briand, Aristide..... 311
Bridgehead 101
"Brig" 86
Brigade 105
Browning gun 87, 94
Brussels 153, 337
Bucharest 268
Bulgaria 4, 202, 302
Bulow, Prince..... 311
Bundesrath 214, 221
By-products 207
Cabinet, U. S..... 290
Cadorna, General 307
Camarilla 181
Cameras
  aircraft 72
Camouflage 89
Camps 108
  cantonments 232
  prison 116
Canada
  army 147
  casualties 124
  plots against.....18, 19, 23
Cannon 88, 91, 95
Cantonments 232, 241
  Plate XVII
Carso 129
Cartridges 108
Caster Oil 76
Casualties of War.....56, 121-125
Catapult 88
Cattle 230, 274, 281
Caucasus 176
Cavell, Edith..156, 157, 332, 333
Censorship 294
Central Powers
  (see Germany and Austria-Hungary)
Chalons 296
Charles Francis Joseph..... 301
Chelmsford, Lord..... 317
Chemin des Dames..... 128
Chief of Staff..... 103
Chile.....276, 283, 145, 285
China 115, 187, 321
Chlorine gas 97
Chronology .....341 to 351
Civilians 151
Clemenceau, Georges 312
Coal 176, 209, 210, 284
Coast defense..... 85
Coffee 229
Colliers 82
Commerce
  (see trade)
Commissioned officers...105, 106
Communication line 53
Communication trench..... 102
Company 103
Company clerk 51
Concrete 146, 262
Congress of U. S.....4, 28-30
Constantine 301
Constanza 165
Convoys 5, 54, 146
Copper 96, 101, 285
Corn 229, 275, 281
Corps 53, 106
Cossacks 160
Cost ..... 1, 125, 190 to 205
Cotton 90, 91, 210, 287
Council of National Defense 292
Courland 159, 165
Court Martial 322, 323, 331
Crops.....228, 229, 274, 280
Cruisers 79, 85
Currency 203
Czar of Russia...4, 183, 301, 302
Czecho-Slovaks 38
Czernin, Count 36, 313
Dacia 259
Dalmatia
  Map, plate VIII..... 5
Danube 165, 166, 266
Dardanelles....128, 129, 134, 136
Daylight Saving..... 320
Death penalties....104, 322, 323
Death rate 123, 232, 246
de Bloch, Jean..... 317
Debts.....181, 193, 194, 197
Declaration of London..... 6
Defensive army 50
Demobilization 235
Denmark 147, 158
Deportation 329
Depth-bomb 56
Deserters 236
Destroyers 54, 81
Destruction
  of ships..... 252
  of villages .....325 to 338
Deutschland 61, 208
Devil Dogs 43
Dictionary of War Names.357-365

Diesel engine 57
Dirigibles 71
Disabled soldiers 123, 126
Division-army 103, 104
Division of Psychology.... 242
Dobrudja 165, 166
Dora 152
Draft .....5, 231 to 240
Dreadnaughts 79, 80, 142
Drunkenness 278
"Dud" 49
Duck walk 101
Dug-outs 102
Duma 179, 180
Dr. Dumba 12
Dyes 207, 208, 209
Egypt 287
Emden 132
Emigration 249
Emperor William II
(see Kaiser)
Enemy 289
Enemy Alien 3, 290, 294
Enfield rifle..... 87
Enfilade 96
England
(see Great Britain)
Entrenching outfit..... 108
Enver Pasha 318
Equipment (see outfit)
Espionage 4, 322, 323
Esthonia 159, 165
Euphrates 268
Europe, Map of
Plate II
Plate XIV
Executive order 27
Exemptions 234
Explosives 88, 90, 96
Exports
of Germany..... 206
of Japan..... 186
of United States..... 279
Eyeglasses 52
Factories 321
Falaba sinking 12
Falklands 131
Farm Loans..... 280
Farmers 238
Fara 26
Ferdinand I..... 301
Finger-prints 114
Finland 161, 166, 167
Fire-trench 49
Firing step 101
Flags of Allies
Plate XVIII
Flemish Belgium 154
Foch, General 310
Food Administration..... 281
Food blockade
(see blockade)
Food conditions
227-230, 272 to 282
Food conditions..229, 272 to 282
Food requirements of army
51, 52
Foreign Legion 149
Forests 287
"Forlorn hope" service 45
Fortress confinement 225
Fourteen articles 30
France
army 101, 121, 147, 285
debt 197
food 276
Foreign Legion 149
loans 200
Map showing lowlands of No. France, Plate V
Map showing highlands of No. France, Plate VI.
Population 247
president 312
prisoners 116
ships 263
Franco-Prussian war 204
Franc-Tireurs 152
Frederick the Great 304
Free Coinage 197
Freedom of the Seas
7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13
French 75s 101
French, General 306
Frontiers 140
"Frye" 254
Fuel Administration 245
Fuel ships 82
Galicians 162
Gallipoli 125, 129, 148
Gas masks 98
Gas, poisonous .....96 to 99
Gasoline 100, 286
Geier 29
Gelrede 328
General 107
George V 300, 302
Germany .....3, 206 to 230
airplanes 67
allies of 4
army 95, 96, 97, 101, 115, 121, 125, 127, 149
conquered land 139
costs of war 202, 205
cotton needs 91
emigration 213
exports 206
food 227
frontier 140
imports 206
industrial conditions 206 to 213
iron 96
loans 202
nationalities, map showing, plate II.
navy 78, 141
political structure..214 to 226
population 206, 228, 246
prisoners .....116 to 120
Prussia .....212, 214, to 226
seaports 211
ships 25, 256
socialists .....218 to 221
taxes 204
Gifts to soldiers.....50, 52, 239
Glacis 99
Goeben 133
Grain 138
Great Britain 171
airplanes 68
army 114, 121, 124, 147
casualties 124
debt 197
food .....272 to 278
king 300
munitions 100, 320
navy 78, 141
prisoners 120
Greece 143, 150, 170, 301
Greek Catholic Church..... 178
Grenades 49
Grey, Viscount 270, 313
Gun-cotton 90
Gun-layer 146
Gunners
American naval 82
Guns 44, 73, 75, 85, 92, 94, 96, 101, 143, 242
Guynemer 68
Hague Conventions 157
Haig, Sir Douglas 306
Hanover 303
Hapsburg 301
Harden, Maximilian 318
Heligoland 137
Helsingfors 166
Herrenhaus 215, 216
Hertling, Count 311
Herzegovina 34
Hindenburg, General..... 306
"Hindenburg Line" 51
Hindu plots 18
Hohenzollerns 215, 300
Holland 147
Belgium refugees in..... 154
trade 284
Holy Synod 178
Home Rule 169
Honors conferred..frontispiece 152
Hoover, Herbert 278
Horses 152
Hospitals 124
Hostages 326
House of Lords 215
Howitzers 92
Huns 295
"Hush-Hush" ships 141
Hydroaeroplanes 26
Hymn of Hate 225
Identification of fighting men
114, 115
Imports
of Germany 206
of Japan 186
of Russia 175
Income tax
Great Britain 198
United States 289
Income, U. S. 195
European Rulers 304
Indemnity 127
India .....147 to 149, 171 to 174
Indigo 208
Industrial conditions
Germany 206-213
Infantryman 51, 108
Inoculation 125
Insignia 109-113
Insurance 239
International law 136
Interned German ships....25, 257
Internment 3
Inventions
American 87
Irish 148, 169
Iron 96
Iron ration 227
Italia Irredenta 32
Italy 136
identification of men..... 115
war costs 201
"Jam Pot" 49
Japan .....184 to 189
navy 79, 142, 188
population 248
Jellicoe, Sir John R..... 305
Jerusalem 130
Jewish Welfare Board..... 299
Jews 168
Joffre, General Joseph..... 305
Jugo-Slavs 38
Junker 216, 308
Jutland 131
Kaiser ..214 to 224, 300, 302, 303
Kerensky, Alexander 313
Kiau-Chau 187
Kiel Canal 137, 267
Killed 121, 122, 125, 232
King of England 300
Kings 300, 304
Kipling 152
Kitchener, Lord 305
Kite balloon 75
Knights of Columbus..... 299
Knot 83
Korea 185
Kornilov, General 307
Kronprinz Wilhelm 29
Krupp works 210, 307
Labor laws 319
Labor Unions 319
Lachrymal shell 99